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1913

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SIMPLICITY, PUBLICITY AND EFFICIENCY IN MUNICIPAL AFFAIRS[1]

BY CLINTON ROGERS WOODRUFF[2]
Philadelphia

CERTAIN new words have been introduced into the discussion of municipal affairs within the past half-dozen years that may properly be regarded as significant sign-posts. These three words are: Simplicity, publicity and efficiency. Honesty is of course regarded as an essential in the administration of municipal affairs; but it is now generally recognized that it is not alone sufficient to solve the problems incident to the very rapid growth of urban communities, at home and abroad.

There has been a growing conviction that the complex systems of the preceding generation, devised as a means to insure good city government automatically have failed of their purpose. The chief result of their introduction has been the strengthening of the power of the professional politician, and of the organizations which he has built up under varying party designations. The commission form of municipal government has in those communities (now 257 in number) where it has been adopted, resulted in giving to the people a simple, direct way of controlling their affairs. Many of its advocates, it is quite true, felt that the new system would of itself insure efficiency, and the selection of competent men for municipal office. Experience, however, has been sufficiently long and sufficiently widespread to show the fallacy of this view. At the same time, the system has helped communities to get control of their political affairs through the introduction of a plan so simple and so direct that it could easily be understood and applied by the average busy elector.

There is no apparent diminution of interest in this form of city government. The movement is really not much over five years old; for while Galveston, the city where it was first applied, has had a commission government since 1901, and Houston since 1905, it was not until the year 1907 that any headway was made. In that year 9 cities, including Des Moines, adopted commission government; 1908's record was 6; 1909's, 29; while in the year 1910, 58 cities adopted the form, and in 1911, 95. The movement's greatest development continues in the central west. The northwestern group (Minnesota, Iowa, South Dakota, North Dakota, Kansas, Nebraska, Wyoming, and Montana) leads, with 64 cities; and the southwestern group (Colorado, Oklahoma, Texas, and New Mexico) follows with 59. The other groups are as follows: Northern central, 39; Pacific and Rocky, 32; southern central, 27; southern, 14; middle, 15; New England, 7.[3]

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[1] Annual review read at the eighteenth annual meeting of the National Municipal League, at Los Angeles, July 9, 1912.

[2] Secretary, National Municipal League.

In a number of states like New York and Pennsylvania there are vigorous efforts to secure enabling legislation, so that cities can avail themselves of the new form. Already the larger cities are beginning seriously to consider the problem. St. Paul, with its population of 214,000, has voted to inaugurate the new plan on January 1, 1914. New Orleans has inaugurated the form this year; and Los Angeles has drafted a commission charter for submission this autumn. To date, no city that has adopted the form has formally abandoned it.

The records of those cities which have had two or more years of experience have been uniformly encouraging; although it must be conceded that in a number of communities there is more or less disappointment because the character of men selected as commissioners has not been higher; generally speaking the present character of officials in commission governed cities is very much higher than prevailed under the older forms. This is because the electors are beginning to see that they are responsible, in the last analysis, and not the form of government, for the character of officials selected. At most, a law can make it easy and feasible to select competent men. It can not of itself take the place of the power and duty of selection, which rests—where it has always rested, where it must always continue to rest—in the hands of the electors themselves.

Among thoughtful students there is now no difference of opinion that the commission form of government has been the chief and most suggestive single experiment thus far made in connection with the machinery of municipal goverment; because it has embodied the short ballot idea and the principle of concentration of responsible power in one small body of officials and the abolition of the ward system and through the elimination of party labels on the ballot, has materially aided in diminishing the element of partisanship. Moreover, it has measurably advanced the idea of intelligent and effective publicity.

These, in brief, may be said to be the chief contributions of the commission form of government; and highly important they are. They may not have been the next logical steps; but experience has shown them to have been the next practical steps. That approximately 5,000,000 urban citizens are living, with increasing general satisfaction under these provisions, is a factor of really striking importance, which should be carefully borne in mind in those older states which have as yet made but comparatively little progress in improving municipal machinery.

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[3] These are the figures for November 15, 1912.

The chief function of a legislative body is to formulate policies. Prof. Frank J. Goodnow, of Columbia, in the National Municipal League's *Municipal Program* clearly shows that:

> It is possible to distinguish in all forms and grades of government two ultimate or primary functions: The one consists in the determination of the public policy; the other in the execution of that policy after it has been once determined. The one function is legislation; the other administration. This distinction of governmental functions has been made from an early time and is at the basis of that fundamental principle of American constitutional law usually referred to as the principle of the separation of powers. It is a distinction based upon a sound psychology. In the case of a single sentient being the will must be formulated, if not expressed, before its execution is possible. In the case of political bodies, which are more and more coming to be recognized as subject to psychological law, not only must the will or policy be formulated before it can be executed, but also the very complexity of their operations makes it almost impossible to intrust the same authority as well with the execution as with the determination of the public policy. This is so not merely because the function of determining the public policy requires deliberation while the function of its execution requires quickness of action, but also because the burden of government is too great to permit of its being borne by any one authority.

To the extent to which the commission form of municipal government mingles the policy-determining and the policy-executing functions in one and the same body of men, there is serious danger. The very method of selecting commissioners (and it is inevitable that they should be so chosen) makes against efficient administration. Though it makes each councilor a real, as well as a titular, executive chief, by paying him a salary (in most cases, however, an inadequate one) and by making him personally responsible for the management of one of the departments into which the executive branch of the government is divided, it provides that he shall be elected for a short term, usually for two years; and that he shall be elected by the whole body of voters at the polls, and that he shall constitute one-fifth or one-seventh, as the case may be, of the only legislative body of the city. To put an official on an expert professional basis it is necessary, as Dr. C. G. Hoag, the proportional representation advocate, maintains:

> To provide that he shall serve indefinitely if only he serves creditably; that he shall be selected and retained by some person or group of persons acquainted with the requirements of his office and competent to judge, after thorough inquiry, of his special qualifications for it, and that his political opinions shall not be confused with his qualifications for purely executive duties.

Dr. Hoag further shows that in England and in Prussia the problem of putting the chief executives on an expert professional basis has been solved with results that evoke the constant and the deserved praises of American municipal publicists. The English town clerk and the Prussian *burgomeister* are chosen by the legislative council (which is elected at the polls) after full inquiry into the training, experience and other qualifications of the applicants; and they are retained in office so long as they are satisfactory to the same competent body. This solution is obvious enough, of course; and its success in Europe has not failed to attract attention in America. Americans however did not adopt it for themselves, simply because they did not trust their city councils. They have not trusted them for reasons already hinted at: They were not responsive to sound public opinion: they were under control adverse to the public because elected by wards, which were too often little more than rotten boroughs, they were elected under a system too complicated for the elector of average busy activity to master and control, and moreover they were based on a fatal distribution of power and responsibility.

Commission government in our cities has done more than any other one agency to restore the council to a position of respect and confidence; because it occupies, under such a form, a position of power and responsibility, and is responsive to the public opinion of the city and provides for a simple and direct formulation of that public opinion. Recent suggestions and developments have all been in the direction of giving to the council more, rather than less, power and responsibility—to make it, in other words, the real policy-determining body, with expert operating efficiency as a part of that policy.

Two most interesting experiments in this direction are now being urged: One in the city of Los Angeles, perhaps the most progressive single city in the United States; the other in Indiana, the municipalities of which have heretofore been properly grouped in the reactionary class.

In Los Angeles the charter committee chosen by the council (subsequently chosen as the board of freeholders) has sought to adapt the commission form of government to the needs of the large city and to the insistent demand for real efficiency and democracy. This it aims to do through a commission of seven, elected at large; each commissioner to be the non-expert political head of a great department, with expert operatives administrators, chosen to execute the policy of the council, immediately under him. All officials and employees, except the city controller, police justices and public defender, to be chosen by an adequately devised competitive examination.

In Indiana a "business plan," formulated by the Fort Wayne Commercial Club and advocated by the commercial clubs of the state, is being urged. Briefly, it provides for fifteen councilors, elected at large, on a non-partisan primary plan. The board of councilors become the appointing power of the city, on the basis that for policy one must elect, and for efficiency one must appoint. This plan is very close to the board of directors plan which so widely prevails in private corporations. The entire control and management of the city government under this business plan rests with the mayor and four commissioners, who appoint all officials and employees under civil service rules. For the purpose of enabling the people to exercise complete control over the board of councilors, they can use the recall on one or all of the board if 25 per cent of the voters will sign a petition to that effect, which must contain a general statement of the grounds for removal. A somewhat similar plan has been elaborated by Mr. Hoag, who, however, couples with it the suggestion of proportional representation, an idea which thus far has received more attention abroad than in this country.

Commission government represents simplicity rather than efficiency. It represents simplicity, because it substitutes a simple for a complex form of government. It fails to provide for adequate efficiency, because in most instances it fails to provide adequately for the selection and retention not only of experts in municipal affairs (for that is a failing of practically all American charters), but it fails to provide for the selection and retention of efficient men in the average run of offices. As a consequence, it is quite possible for shrewd and skilful men to handle the patronage of a community in a way to serve their personal interests more effectively than the city's needs.

Whatever may be the ultimate form of American municipal government, this much can now be asserted with a fair degree of positiveness: The double chambered municipal legislature must yield to the single-chambered one elected at large; so that there may be at one and the same time a simple and an effective policy-determining body responsive to the wishes of the municipal population.

Coincident with the commission government development has been the movement for municipal home rule. Until within a very short time the cities have been regarded as incapable of determining their policies, or of managing their own affairs. These have been determined or managed for them through the state legislatures, elected for sundry other purposes, involving questions both of national and of state politics. The people are beginning to realize, however, that if the cities are to be rescued from the slough of inefficiency, mismanagement and corruption into which they fell a generation or more ago, they must do it through their own efforts—that they must have the right of self-government. On the Pacific Coast this right is now universally recognized in the constitution of the states, and in the practice of the legislatures and of the cities. So in Colorado, where the Rush amendment, embodying the constitutional amendment drafted by the National Municipal League, gives to the cities of that state complete municipal autonomy. Slowly the movement is coming eastward. We find Michigan granting this power of municipal home rule to its cities; and the recent The Ohio Municipal Constitutional Convention adopted broad home rule provisions which the voters of the state ratified by a large majority. A healthy movement for municipal home rule exists in New York, in Virginia and in several other eastern states.

In many places the right of the locality to manage its own affairs is recognized in the passage of bills drafted by local authorities to meet local needs. Municipal electors, however, will not be satisfied until they can have a full and free hand to determine their own municipal policies.

Not only has the tendency towards simplicity, directness and publicity manifested itself in the forms of charters adopted by American cities, but in such matters as that of taxation. In the main the general tendencies, during the past decade of years, of the recommendations made by various conferences and meetings of students and administrators of taxation, have been in that direction; and legislation has sought to secure directness in the sense of certainty, as indicated by the substitution of state income taxes and of various special taxes for the general property tax in various places. There has also been a decided tendency toward publicity, especially of real estate assessments and methods.

The short ballot is another phase of the movement to enforce simplicity, directness and publicity. Sentiment in its behalf is growing very rapidly. Unquestionably a considerable part of the commission government movement is due to the public belief that to secure real democracy the people must not be overworked in the matter of the selection of their officials. As the assistant secretary of the Short Ballot Organization so aptly stated a short time since:

> Beneath its surface simplicity the short ballot idea strikes rudely at some of the most cherished and deep-rooted political traditions in American political thought. . . . . It runs counter to political superstitions which have been responsible for much of the lack of popular control with the resultant inefficiency and corruption which have been characteristic of state and city government. The election of minor officials is not a boon and a privilege but a specious device to keep from the common people the control of their government.
>
> The dangerously-great power of politicians in our country . . . . rests on the fact that we are living under a form of democracy that is so unworkable as to constitute in practice a pseudo-democracy. It is unworkable because,
>
> First. It submits to popular election offices which are too unimportant to attract (or deserve) public attention, and,
>
> Second. It submits to popular election so many offices at one time that many of them are inevitably crowded out from proper public attention, and,

> Third. It submits to popular election so many offices at one time that the business of making up the electoral tickets necessary at every election makes the political machine an indispensable instrument in electoral action. . . . .
>
> The "Short Ballot" principle is:
>
> First. That only those offices should be elective which are important enough to attract (and deserve) public examination.
>
> Second. That very few offices should be filled by election at one time, so as to permit adequate and unconfused public examination of the candidates.

Direct legislation represents still another effort in the effort to enforce the will of the community in simple and direct fashion. It is an essential part of most commission governments, but it can be and has been utilized in other forms. For instance, it is an integral part of the Indiana "business plan" already referred to.

Professor Munro, in his volume on *The Initiative, Referendum and Recall*, in the National Municipal League Series, declares:

> There has been no more striking phenomenon in the development of American political institutions during the last ten years than the rise to prominence in public discussion and, consequently, to recognition upon the statute-book, of those so-termed newer weapons of democracy: The initiative, referendum and recall. . . . . For this growth in popularity a two-fold reason may be assigned: On the one hand, it is a logical by-product of the declining popular trust in the judgment and integrity of elective legislators. . . . . In the second place, the representatives of the people have themselves shown a readiness to adopt the movement. American legislative bodies do their work under the serious handicaps arising both from the lack of *efficient* leadership and from the division both of power and responsibility which is inherent in the system under which they are expected to perform their functions. Thoughtful men, both in the state legislatures and in the large city councils of most American cities, have come to realize that efficient legislation requires both leadership and centralization of responsibility.

Efficiency is a word which has been introduced into our municipal vocabulary within a very few years. It represents the advance line of the movement for better municipal government. The bureaus of municipal research have been responsible for a measure of the demand for efficiency, because they have shown so clearly and indisputably the inefficiency of present methods. They have not been alone, however, in recognizing and emphasizing this fact. Those interested in the improvement of the civil service of the community have urged for years that not only were honesty and freedom from political control essentials, but that steps must be taken for the selection of the most competent and efficient men, not only in the minor, but in the major places as well. The report of the joint committee of the National Municipal League and the National Civil Service Reform League on the selection and retention of experts in municipal service,[4] is an official recognition of this sentiment; and the establishment of efficiency bureaus in numerous cities is a further manifestation of the same thought. So considerable has been the growth of the demand for efficiency, not only in governmental affairs, but in private affairs as well (for the methods pursued in private concerns have not always been calculated to produce the best results with the least expenditure of time and money) that it has resulted in the organization of an efficiency society, the object of which is to bring together those who are interested in attaining this end in the management of affairs, both public and private.

Another development of interest along these lines is the utilization of the university trained men in municipal affairs. Somewhat over a year ago an arrangement was entered into between Harvard and the municipality of Cambridge, providing for coöperation between the members of the faculty of the former and the various official bodies of the latter. For instance, certain of the university professors rendered most efficient help to the building commission appointed to examine the city buildings and make recommendations as to repairs and the most economical way to effect them.

In Philadelphia, shortly after the inauguration of the present administration, the provost of the University of Pennsylvania wrote to the mayor saying that it gave him pleasure to say that after a conference with his board of trustees he was in a position to announce that the University of Pennsylvania would be glad through its professors to coöperate with the city at any time, in the solution of the problems which arise from time to time in the various departments of the city. As a result of this, the university has designated a member of a committee of three to advise with the department of public works on those aspects of the water problem which affect the public health; another member of the faculty has been designated to conduct an expert examination of the city's water; and still another is at work on the franchise problem. In addition to this, the university has been giving lectures from time to time for the inspectors and assistants in the bureau of highways, with a view to enabling them to become more efficient and effective in the discharge of their respective duties.

The same tendencies that are manifested in other departments of municipal activity, find expression in the municipal policy concerning public utilities. There is an increasing tendency to give to the people and their official representatives a completer and a more direct control of their operation and management with a corresponding increase in efficiency and effectiveness.

Non-partisanship, or more accurately a disregard of national politics in the determination of municipal questions, is constantly getting a stronger hold upon the voters of American cities. In no one of the cities now under a commission form of government is there any mention of a national party, or for that matter of any party on the ballots, used either at the primary or at the general election. In a lengthening list of the larger cities, e.g., Boston, Seattle, Portland, Ore., San Francisco, and Los Angeles, the same conditions prevail.

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[4] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. i, p. 646.

Speaking of the latter city brings to mind its *Municipal News*, which is a weekly actually conducted by the city. A striking feature of this paper, under the provisions of the ordinance establishing it is that one of its pages is devoted to party politics, a column each for the Democratic, the Good Government organization, the Republican, the Socialist party, and the Socialist Labor party. The first two organizations named availed themselves of the space. The Socialists did likewise, both branches having a column. The Republican organization, however, refused, giving its reasons, in part, as follows:

> The Republican county central committee is opposed to the use for partisan purposes of a municipal newspaper financed by the city of Los Angeles and published under the direction of city officials. We believe with Theodore Roosevelt—"The worst evils that affect our local government arise from and are the inevitable result of the mixing up of the city affairs with the party politics of the nation and of the state. The lines upon which national parties divide have no necessary connection with the business of the city." This committee does not desire to furnish anything of a partisan nature for publication in the *Municipal News* and regrets exceedingly that opportunity is offered other political organizations and national parties to use the columns of the municipal paper in this city for such purposes.

While on the Pacific coast last winter, nearly two months, and while in some communities, notably in Seattle, where fierce campaigns were being waged, I do not recall once hearing the national party labels used in connection with municipal affairs or candidates. I frequently asked an official's politics, but I was not always successful in finding out. Party politics, in the national sense, are disappearing in these far-western cities and so is the political boss.

The leading publicists of the day, headed by so distinguished a man as Ambassador Bryce, hold to the view that the national political parties should be and must be disregarded in the realm of city affairs if we are to solve our municipal problems. In opening a municipal congress and exposition in Chicago, Mayor Harrison, who was elected as a Democrat, advocated absolutely non-partisan municipal administration, as well as nominations and elections "based on individual merit, not on party label." Mayor Fitzgerald of Boston, on the same occasion, who was also elected as a Democrat, commended the German plan of selecting experts, regardless of politics, to serve as heads of municipal departments. The German plan, by the way, includes the selection of mayors regardless of politics, geography or anything else that is not related to fitness and merit.

No one at a municipal congress, as the Chicago *Record Herald* pointed out at the time, would venture to defend the spoils system or naked partisanship in municipal administration. The absurdity of it would be too patent. Any such congress or exposition is a plea for merit and efficiency, a protest against irrelevant politics and spoils. Hence the value of such congresses and expositions. The speakers feel they must rise to a higher plane, the visitors hear the right gospel and inspect various "object lessons" illustrative of the growth of sense and method in local administration.

Former Mayor Speer of Denver, on his return from an European trip a year ago, declared that the most important thing needed in the government of American cities was the removal of party politics.

> We are getting nearer to that point every year. We should only nominate men in whom we have confidence, and then pledge them to an administration of city affairs from which no one could tell to what political party they belonged.

Philadelphia affords a striking example of a great city disregarding party lines in the selection of its chief magistrate. All through the late mayoralty campaign there was a general disregard of the party appeal and the advocacy of candidates based on merit. This is as it should be and as it is coming to be. Party lines have set very lightly in most communities during the past year; and a very large number of cities have emancipated themselves from the shibboleth of partisan politics in municipal elections. This independence has manifested itself not only in the matter of the selection of officials, but in the votes upon various questions submitted to the electors for determination. Nevertheless, few people realize at its true value the growth of the municipal movement in this country and the development of sound municipal public opinion. A roll call of the cities will disclose a lengthening list of those communities that are breaking their shackles of subserviency to old conditions and low standards, and establishing in their place and stead governments that are simple in form, direct in their operation, public in their manifestation, and independent of old-time party shibboleths and leaders.

STATE VS. MUNICIPAL REGULATIONS OF PUBLIC UTILITIES

BY JOHN MORTON ESHLEMAN, M.A.[1]

San Francisco

THE present constitutional provision[2] provides for the regulation of utilities outside of municipalities by the railroad commission and the regulation of utilities within municipalities by the municipal authorities to the extent of the powers vested in such municipal authorities at the time of the going into effect of legislation, which the constitutionl amendment contemplated to be passed, conferring powers upon the railroad commission for which the constitutional mandate provided. Thereafter the option remains with the municipality to exercise such authority over the utilities within its borders or, by an election held for that purpose, to transfer such powers to the railroad commission, and having once transferred its powers, the right is reserved to retake the powers at a subsequent election, should the municipality desire.

This scheme of regulation makes it necessary for the public authorities, both state and municipal, to determine just what power is reposed in each several municipality at the time of the taking effect of the public utilities act of this state, which was the legislation passed pursuant to the constitutional amendment heretofore referred to. In order that there might be no unnecessary conflict between state and municipal authorities, the commission requested various city attorneys of the state to present their views as to what authority was vested in each municipality on the twenty-third day of March, 1912, the effective date of the public utilities act, and directed its attorney to investigate the various city charters with a view to rendering an opinion on this question for the future guidance of the commission.

It is our view that March 23, 1912, is the date which must be looked to in determining what powers were vested in the municipal authorities of the several cities. The powers which municipal authorities have are the powers conferred upon them by the state (a municipality being a creature of the state for local governmental purposes). All such municipalities have the ordinary police power which is the "power to conserve the health, comfort, happiness and convenience of its inhabitants."[3] As to such power over public utility corporations, the railroad commission, of course, has no authority. The power to fix rates of public utilities, however, is a power which must be conferred upon municipalities by direct action of the state.[4]

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[1] Mr. Eshleman is president of the board of railroad commissioners for the state of California, and as such has had practical experience with the questions he discusses in his paper, which was read at the Los Angeles meeting of the National Municipal League.

[2] Art. xxiii, sec. 12, constitution of California.

[3] Tiedeman, *Municipal Corporations*, sec. 135.

I have not overlooked the apparent enlargement of the police power of cities so as to include rate fixing powers by the decisions of some of the courts. I have particularly in mind the case of *Denninger vs. Recorder's Court of Pomona*,[5] but the language used there, and which is usually referred to in support of the theory that the cities, under their police power, have the power of rate fixing, is certainly but dictum and not necessary to the decision of the case and, as pointed out by Mr. Max Thelen in his opinion to the commission, if section 11 of article xi of the California constitution be construed to confer upon the municipalities of the state the power to regulate the rates of public utilities in its grant of police powers, then section 19 of article xi would be mere surplusage as would also be section 1 of article xiv, as these sections confer the same powers as would be conferred in section 11 of article xi and would be wholly unnecessary.

The police power of the municipalities over public utilities is mainly the power to regulate the use of streets, and all cities whether under provisions of the constitution[6] or under the general laws providing for the organization of certain classes of cities or under freeholders' charters as they existed on the twenty-third day of March, 1912, have power to regulate the rates for light, water, power, heat, transportation and telephone service or other means of communication in so far as such services are rendered within the limits of municipalities exercising such authority.

As to railroad corporations, certainly these cities have no authority except the ordinary police power which has already been adverted to. As to common carriers other than railroad and street railroad corporations, the municipalities have no power except the police power. As to service and equipment, no municipalities other than those which were operating under freeholders' charters on the twenty-third day of March, 1912, have any auhority whatsoever. To determine the powers of chartered cities in this regard, it will be necessary to resort to the various charters and the design of this paper does not require that such be done. It is sufficient to say, however, that most of the freeholders' charters of the cities of the state of California provide for varying degrees of regulation of the service and equipment of the public utilities within their borders.

The public utilities act is not merely a compilation of the laws of the

[4] Wyman, *Public Service Corporations*, vol. 1, sec. 1410.

[5] 145 Cal. 629.

[6] Section 11 of article xi, section 19 of article xi, section 1 of article xiv.

various states, but is rather a homogoneous enactment designed to cover every aspect of regulation that may be presented to a public authority. To be sure the experiences of other states have been used to the best advantage and particularly is our statute designed to escape the difficulties which have confronted other commissions. The act represents the combined efforts of a great many of the leading attorneys of the state, representing both the municipalities and the public utilities.

I assume that it will be agreed that the three principal divisions of public utility regulation are rates, service and securities. Falling within one or the other of these divisions are, I believe, all the subjects of regulation. The commission has been given the authority to regulate the rates, service and securities of street railroad corporations, railroad corporations, express corporations, pipe line corporations, gas corporations, electrical corporations, telephone and telegraph corporations, water corporations, vessels, warehousemen and wharfingers, and each of these is defined as a public utility. As incident to the fixing of rates, the commission is empowered to ascertain the valuation of the property of any public utility, and likewise to prescribe systems of accounts and regulate free or reduced rate transportation and prevent discriminations. As incident to service, the commission has all the powers that are ordinarily necessary to require adequate fulfillment of their duties to the public by utilities and specifically may require extensions, proper management, proper equipment, adequate number of trains or cars, track connections, construction of spur tracks, maintenance of a proper standard of quality for certain commodities, etc. Likewise the commission may prevent discrimination in service.

Street railroads, gas, electrical, telephone and water corporations are required to apply to the commission for a certificate of public convenience and necessity and also for the right to exercise franchises. These provisions have to do with both rates and service.

The power of the commission to regulate the issuance of securities of utilities companies is a power which has not heretofore been conferred upon any public authority in this state. The commission is not limited in dealing with securities to a refusal or a granting of permission to the utility to issue such securities. It may deny the application as made; it may grant it as made or it may grant it in a modified form by imposing conditions which seem right and necessary. This latter power is not conferred specifically upon the commissions in the various states, and lacking such specific grant, the courts usually take the view that the commission's authority is limited to the granting or the refusal to grant the application as made. This defect in the New York statute has very seriously interfered with the work of the public service commissions of that state, and the courts of New York have held that under the statute there, the commissions have no power to impose conditions. Any stocks or bonds of a public utility which are issued without an order of the commission are void and the commission has the power to see that the proceeds of stock and bond issues are devoted to the purposes set out in the law and in the order of the commission.

While it does not have a direct bearing upon the divided authority over utilities, yet the court procedure for which the public utilities act provides is worthy of note. Heretofore it has been the practice often of public utilities to state very little of their cases before the commissions and then attack the orders of the commissions in the courts and produce the testimony before the courts which had been withheld from the commissions. Our act provides that no public utility may go into the court until it has asked for and been denied a rehearing before the commission, and it may only present to the courts those matters of evidence which have been theretofore presented to the commission. The resort is directly to the supreme court of the state by means of a writ of review. This method insures a complete presentation to the commission of all the facts surrounding the questions in issue and enables the commission to render its order with all the evidence before it which will be necessary to a correct decision.

The regulation of public utilities other than railroads in all of the states has been a growth and the first steps have usually been taken within the cities. Most of the states sought to regulate their railroads through state authority, usually through railroad commissions, but provided no state wide regulation of other utilities. Proceeding from the exercise of their police power, the cities have gradually been permitted to extend their authority until in many states the cities now have all the authority that the municipalities of this state enjoy. In by far the greater number of states, until very recently, there has been no attempt on the part of the state to regulate utilities other than railroads outside of municipalities, and hence we have had a condition grow up which has produced regulation of street railroads, gas, electric, telephone and water and similar corporations within the cities and has left these corporations free to work their own will as to all unincorporated territory.

An incorporated city has certain boundaries but these are not recognized in a telephone exchange or a gas or electric plant, and now by the rapidly increasing suburban population, brought on by the extension of rapid transit facilities and the enlargement in the use of telephone, light and gas service in the farming communities, we have thrust upon us a condition wherein a utility serving a city in no wise limits the scope of its operation to the borders of such city, and hence arises the problem of divided regulation. Many of the states have not yet provided for the regulation of their utilities other than railroads in their operation within unincorporated territory. The remaining states either have divided authority or the question of jurisdiction is doubtful. The only state whose scheme of regulation is closely analogous to that prevailing in California is Kansas, and in that state there exists a form of appeal from the city authorities to the public utilities commission, which scheme would be impossible under the constitutional provision obtaining in California under the decisions of our supreme court. New York and Wisconsin both provide for the regulation by the state authorities not only of private corporations operating within cities but also of municipally owned plants.

I do not here question the propriety of a municipality exercising such powers of regulation over utilities operating within such municipality as do not necessarily affect the patrons of such utility without the boundaries of the municipality. If a utility confines its operation entirely to the territory within the corporate limits of a municipality, then such municipality should have the right to control the operation of such utility. While I concede the right I do not now commit myself as to the policy of such action. This is in line with the now generally accepted American doctrine of permitting to localities that degree of self-government which is possible without interfering with the rights of people who do not live within such communities. The design of the federal constitution is to retain in the states all such powers as are necessary to the protection of the rights of the inhabitants of such states when such retention of powers may not interfere with the general welfare of the people of the entire Nation, and only such general powers are conferred by the several states upon the federal government as are necessary to deal with national as distinguished from state problems.

Our original premise was that the city should regulate those things which are peculiar to the city, but should not regulate those things which may, directly or indirectly, affect others who are not of its population. The legal maxim that a man may use that which is his only in such a way as not to injure another, applies, I believe, with equal force to a city in the use of its powers, and I might also say as well to a state and to a nation. Therefore we must be very slow to make up our minds that a city should have the right to regulate the affairs of a utility operating within the city, but likewise serving its commodity to other sections, until it appear that the action of such city cannot work injustice to the other patrons of the utility to be regulated.

Once I thought that the sense of justice which is supposed to be present with all men would prevent a city from regulation which had merely in view the interests of the inhabitants of such municipality, but being more sophisticated now, I no longer hold this view, and here is the reason for my change of mind: Under the certificate of public convenience and necessity which requires a public utility desiring to enter territory already served by another utility of the same kind, whether such territory be within or without a municipality, to apply for permission so to do, it has been necessary for the railroad commission to investigate the attitude of municipal authorities in this regard. I believe those who have studied utility questions know that rate wars cannot ultimately be of benefit to the patrons of utilities engaged in such strife. Likewise that where a territory is completely served with the utility, that the advent of a second utility of the same kind means duplication of service and hence necessitates a return on an unnecessary amount of property, if rates are to be fixed with relation to the value of the property involved. Bear in mind, that what I say here applies only to territory *completely* and adequately served. Yet in investigations concerning the issuance of a certificate of public convenience and necessity we have found that sometimes the attitude of the city authorities is that they are willing that a second utility should come into their municipality and duplicate service and cut rates below a reasonable scale and recoup itself if any loss be entailed in such city from territory wherein competition does not exist. In fact, we have had this directly admitted by city authorities under oath before us, and this in disregard of the fact that such utility must inevitably make unreasonably high rates elsewhere or drive its competitor out of business in the competitive territory and thereafter recoup itself from the very patrons who have assisted in destroying the weaker competitor. These practices have prevailed in so many sections of the United States and on such large scales, as has been demonstrated again and again, that I had thought that selfish considerations, if none other, would prevent municipal authorities from taking the position we have found some of them to take, but, as I have said, I no longer entertain such belief as to some of the city authorities in this state at least.

Of course, the people of Los Angeles and the city authorities of this magnificent and progressive city would not be either so selfish or so foolish as the city authorities to whom I have referred, but even here we find, if I am correctly informed, that it is urged by some that because of the fact that the people of this city generously and farsightedly went into their pockets to construct the aqueduct and bring water through the mountains for their use and for the use of much of southern California, that by reason of that fact they should have not only the legal but the moral right to charge to the consumers of this water in territory not within the municipality "all the traffic will bear." At the risk of treading upon the toes of some of my very best friends, and impliedly criticising those concerning whose integrity and fairmindedness I have no doubt, I will say, that I believe the city of Los Angeles has neither the legal nor the moral right to do any such thing, and I would further say that, in my opinion, the attitude in this regard is no better than the attitude of the transportation companies that have been urging as to this city and this state that they have a similar right to charge all the traffic will bear.

The people of Los Angeles should pause and determine just what this doctrine means before they finally adopt it. As naïvely put by Commissioner Gordon of the railroad commission of this state, in discussing this theory with a traffic man, this doctrine means "beating the competition where it exists and soaking the non-competitive points." This is what it means when applied to railroads. Of course, I assume that its apologists will say that it does not mean the same when applied to Los Angeles. As applied to railroads it means, as a traffic man recently said, the driving of ships from the sea and the neutralization of the competition of the water. By putting in rates at some points that prevent the ships from doing business or securing control of the ships, and thus preventing them from giving the public any advantage from the water highway the railroads have in times past driven the ships from the sea, but the people of the state of California and all other states of the Union have helped to pay the expense of thus driving the ships from the sea.

"All the traffic will bear" means that the necessity of the farmer is the limit of the freight rate: that is, he is charged a rate that will at least usually get his produce to market, for if he is charged a higher rate than this it pays him to let it rot. The same necessity which causes the farmer to pay the high rate in order to move his traffic will cause the irrigator to pay a high rate for his water, particularly after he has once brought his land under irrigation, and must, of necessity, by reason of the character of his crops, have water in succeeding years. The duress which may be resorted to by those in charge of water for public distribution has often been commented upon by the courts in determining the rules for regulating irrigation companies, and the city of Los Angeles would have the same power, if it is permitted to charge all the traffic would bear, that private corporations have.

I understand also that it is urged that the city of Los Angeles by generously expending its money in this extremely laudable undertaking and in bringing water to these thirsty lands, is enhancing the value of these lands, and that the enhancement should go to the city of Los Angeles. The railroads argue before us that they, by building into a territory, have enhanced the value of the lands, and therefore should have higher freight rates. I believe that the people of Los Angeles are entitled to great consideration for having consummated this wonderful enterprise, and that those who jointly share with them the benefits should jointly assume the burden, but I do not believe it is any more justifiable for those who share the benefits with the city of Los Angeles to bear an undue proportion of the burden than it is for the railroad, because its bondholders have paid in the money for its building, to take the unearned increment in the territory through which it passes.

So far I have only dealt with what might be called the moral aspect of the case. I have gone no further than to say that as to a utility operating within and without a municipality, the authorities of such municipality should not exercise such control over said utility as will permit the imposition of an undue burden upon the outlying territory. It will be necessary, however, before finally determining the advisability of divided regulation to decide in what cases the exercise by a municipality of the power of regulating such utility will put it in a position to burden outlying territory, and as to all other cases, what I have said on the moral side of this matter has no application. Before doing this, however, it will be advisable to discuss any practical difficulties which may be presented by divided regulation, and thus have before us all the factors which go to determine whether or not our divided regulation as it exists in California, is better or worse than state control.

I have heretofore said, that as to utilities whose operation is limited to the confines of a municipality, I see no reason in public policy why the municipalities should not regulate them. I am aware of the fact that very often it is urged that even these utilities should not be regulated by the city because, in the language of the utility, ordinarily it makes the city, an interested party, the judge of its own case. While to a limited degree this may be true, yet all outside regulation, whether state or municipal, is in a measure open to this charge. As members of the public in whose interest primarily regulation exists, and not pecuniarily or otherwise interested in the public utility to be regulated, public officers are to some degree interested parties. Then, too, it is said that city regulation requires the utility to go into city politics. If such be the case, I see no reason why state regulation does not also require the utility to go into state politics.

We, in all of the cities and all the states, have heard much of "cinch" bills and unjust decisions against utilities by public officers. I have had some enlightening experience as a member of the California legislature, and I do not know whether or not this audience will expect me to apologize for having been a member of the legislature, but in California, at least at the present time, it is not dishonorable to be a member of the legislature. While at Sacramento, as a member of a legislature whose majority at least was not antagonistic to the utility interests of this state, I found it invariably the case that the independent legislator always opposed the so-called "cinch" bills which the subservient and owned legislator always introduced. The participation in politics of the public utilities, which they justify as a necessity because they must be protected from the action of dishonest officials, is directly responsible for the election of these dishonest officials.

As with the state so with the city governments. Public utilities can always get a square deal from honest men to the limit of their knowledge, and the way to get this square deal is not to attempt to elect dishonest men to office who are subservient to the utilities, but to keep out of politics and allow the people to elect their own officers, and then play an open game before the authorities, presenting instead of suppressing evidence, to the end that these honest officials may have sufficient knowledge properly to decide. Therefore I still say, that a public utility, operating entirely within a municipality, quite properly should be regulated by such municipality and that such a method of regulation is directly in accord with the spirit of American institutions. Hence, I limit the doubtful cases to those that involve the regulation by the city authorities of a portion only of the business of public utilities affected.

Ordinarily the limit of a telephone exchange is not the city boundaries, nor does a gas or water corporation limit its activity to one municipality. In the fixing of rates a knowledge of the fair value of the property which is properly attributable to the portion of the rate bearing public for which rates are desired to be made must be known, and likewise the amount of operating and other expenses incident to the furnishing of the utility must be considered. In by far the majority of the cases where a utility does business in two or more municipalities, or in one municipality and outlying unincorporated territory, it is practically impossible to determine the proper value of the property of the utility within the city which is necessary to its service without the city, and the same may be said for the distribution of the operating expenses and revenue. How difficult it is to determine what portion of a telephone line, for example, serving municipal territory and territory without, shall be apportioned to the city and what portion to the unincorporated territory can only be realized by the person who has tried to perform the operation.

Some one may think, superficially, that the division should be in proportion to the number of miles or feet of line within or without the municipality, but such person is overlooking the fact that all of the line within the municipality is necessary for the service without the municipality and the portion of the line outside the municipality is also necessary for all service from points without to points within the municipality. The same may be said for income and operating expenses. The same practical difficulty suggested here is presented by every aspect of regulation where we have divided authority such as exists in this state. The only possibility of arriving at a near approximation of correct results is by taking all, or a sufficiently large portion of a utility business, preferably the former. The exchange apparatus of a telephone company is necessary to its toll business, and vice versa. The city mains of a water company are necessary to its distribution system in any other city in which it may operate. The electrical transmission wires which bring hydro-electric energy from the mountain sources are just as necessary to the distribution of light and power in Pasadena as in Los Angeles and to the suburban territory of Los Angeles County, as to its smaller municipalities. The maintenance of these power lines and the power houses and the dams is essential to the entire service of the power company.

We have power companies in this state which furnish light and power to scores of municipalities and counties and for the fixing of rates in the smallest of these municipalities it is essential to know exactly the same things about the revenue and expenses of these companies as would be necessary to be known by a rate fixing body which would fix the rates which should exist for all patrons in the territory served. I do not mean to convey the impression that the larger authority would fix a flat rate for the entire territory. What I do mean to say is, that the larger authority would fix the same sliding scale for utilities and make it applicable to the entire district as would be necessary to be fixed by the municipal council and that the larger authority could much more easily secure the data necessary to be considered by it than could the municipal authority, because this latter authority would have to secure the information necessary to the former and make the segregations and apportionments which are not necessary when the entire business and the entire rates are in contemplation.

Therefore, as to utilities operating other than entirely within one city, divided authority means duplication of work as many times over as the authority is divided and from an economical and practicable aspect it is a waste of governmental machinery to use a half hundred agencies in doing that which can better be done by one. All of you know the many difficulties that are presented to a city council in fixing rates and regulating service. Inadequate apparatus and the proneness of cities to expect their officers to serve for inadequate or no salaries makes it practically impossible for them to determine the facts, and this condition is ideal for fostering litigation. Nothing is so desirable from the standpoint of a utility which desires to defeat regulation than a condition which prevents the local authorities from securing adequate information and likewise permits the tying up a dozen city ordinances where state regulation would only present for attack one order for the same territory and an order which in the very nature of things would be fortified by a much more thorough investigation than can possibly be made by unpaid city authorities with inadequate funds for investigating purposes.

Nowadays it has become the custom of public utilities to clamor for state regulation and this has caused many people to be suspicious of such regulation. I believe such an attitude on the part of the public utility is a hopeful one. No one who has followed political development in the United States, in national, state and city governments, which has been going on in the last decade can fail to see that the people of this country have decided that the government is greater than the great corporations: that the creator is greater than its creature, and the wise utility manager confronting the pent-up wrath of the public which has been so long in the forming and which is directly due to the iniquities that have been worked upon the public by utilities in the past, sees that for him and for his institution, regulation or a worse fate is in store and he flies to regulation as his only salvation.

No longer may the public utility, connected through the boss with the underworld, control the destiny of any city of the United States for any appreciable time. No longer may the great railroad enterprises, holding together the bosses in the various cities, control the states, and the utility enterprises and the other great corporate interests realizing, as I have said, that regulation for them is the only escape from the further anger of the public and possibly final confiscation, or at least extensive reprisals, and facing clear decisions of the supreme court of the United States which strengthen the arm of the public authorities against them, are now proposing to accept regulation and accepting it, they are desirous that it may be as efficient as it may possibly be. Consequently they view with more approval one tribunal, amply equipped, that shall deal effectively and expeditiously with the problems presented to it than the annoyance of scores of city councils each, as I have said, poorly equipped, to attack these larger problems.

Of course, in the larger cities, like San Francisco and Los Angeles, there could and should be adequate funds provided and reasonable salaries for those engaged in this work and the rapidly increasing number of municipally owned plants will make necessary the training of experts and the expenditure of money in this direction. I am firmly convinced, however, in the absence of municipal ownership of utilities and utilities operating as they now do in more than one city, or in city and country territory, that from a practical standpoint the state and not the city should deal with them.

Referring again to the moral aspect of the question, even a superficial view will show that the city which regulates but a part of a utility has it in its power so to act as to affect other territory. Under similar circumstances the rate in a city should be the same as the rate without the city or the rate in one city should be the same as the rate in another and the standard of efficiency should likewise be the same. Therefore in every instance where a city authority fixes rates without adequately considering the entire business of the utility on the hit or miss plan which has heretofore been an absolute necessity in most cities by reason of the facts to which I have already referred, such city may, and often does, by chance fix a rate which is not just to the outlying territory and which will yield an amount less than should be yielded for the service, thereby decreasing the revenue of the utility and this decrease will affect the entire revenue and when the larger authority considers the business of the utility operating within this city for rate fixing purposes, in outside territory, it will be presented with a revenue which will be less than it should be by reason of the too low rate within the city and thereby if it is just to the utility it must fix a rate which is on the average too high for the outlying territory. Thus the very inability of the municipality adequately to determine the questions of rates and service in many cases works an injustice to other consumers of the utility, and until these cities are prepared to deal with this question as its importance demands, they should not in justice desire to deal with it at all.

The careless attitude of the cities, particularly the smaller, and I have urged that some of the larger ones are sometimes likewise careless, necessitates in many instances either an injustice to consumers outside the cities or upon the utilities themselves, and when we consider also the attitude of the city authorities, very few in number I am glad to say, who believe that their city should get all it can out of a utility, even at the expense of other consumers, we have plainly presented to us a moral reason in addition to the very cogent practical reason against dual regulation.

I hope I have not been unduly critical in this paper, as it has not been my desire so to be. I have presented to you the practical difficulties of the system under which we are now operating and I am firmly convinced that my attitude is the correct one. Just as I believe from a practical standpoint that a utility operating within a city and without the same should not be subject to the jurisdiction of the city, so I am convinced that a railroad operating in more than one state should be subject entirely to regulation by federal authorities and not to the state authorities. In saying this, however, I do not desire to lend aid to the scheme which is now being actively urged upon the courts by the attorneys for the railroads whereby the state shall be divested of authority and no power added to the federal authorities. The so-called Sanborn decision of the circuit court of the United States, rendered at St. Paul in *Shepard vs. Northern Pacific*, does not in my opinion add one vestige of power to the interstate commerce commission, while if it should be sustained by the supreme court of the United States, would very largely interfere with the power of the states to regulate the state business of carriers.

Until we confer all power over railroads upon the federal government, of course the states must continue their authority as to state business. I make mention of this now in passing to show that I believe in the universal application of the doctrine which I have here enunciated with reference to city regulation of utilities. I am free to say, however that when the business of a railroad is largely within one state, fewer practical difficulties are presented to the state authorities engaged in regulating it, and the same condition exists when the percentage of the business of a utility within a city is high.

We are all interested in good government for the city and the state and the nation, and it is only by a careful, conscientious study of these great questions involved in the regulation of public utilities that we can properly solve them, and I congratulate this body for the magnificent work which it has performed in the many cities in this nation and for the large part which it has heretofore played in bringing to the people of the municipalities that government which they should have, and I have no doubt that in the future your active participation in the problems of the cities, both as they affect the city and the state, will lead to still larger results.

STATE VS. MUNICIPAL REGULATION OF PUBLIC UTILITIES

BY LEWIS R. WORKS, ESQ.[1]
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THE question of the control and regulation of public utilities has often, perhaps usually, been treated as if the two possible systems of intrastate control are at warfare with each other. Sharp lines of contest are drawn between state regulation and city regulation. The subject on which Mr. Eshleman and I are privileged to address you today is designated on the program, "State versus Municipal Regulation of Public Utilities." The potent Latin word in the title indicates that, on this question, the state and the city are as far apart as are two individuals who find nothing in common, upon some particular question, and consequently confide the solution of it to the mercies of a power outside themselves.

I am unable to assume a controversial attitude upon the subject, at least, in anything like its entirety. I am unable to subscribe myself as counsel for either the plaintiff or the defendant. It is the duty of every citizen to contribute his energies and talents to the solution of the public utility problem and he discharges the duty only when he does his utmost toward maintaining, in an effective and flourishing condition, both state and municipal machinery for the performance of the gigantic task.

As one lately connected with city regulation, I must contend that there are certain features of the work which can best be handled by municipal agencies; but I hasten, notwithstanding my recent alliance with such agencies, to declare with equal positiveness, that certain other features can be successfully dealt with only by the state.

If we would consider the subject in a logical manner, we first must pay a due regard to certain general ideas arising from the diversified conditions existing within a group of forty-eight states, each sovereign, within its own boundaries, upon the question under review. For our purpose, it is sufficient to consider this phase of the subject in a double aspect. We may pay regard to the state, generically speaking:

1. As to its density of population.
2. As to the degree of autonomy allowed to its cities.

First, then: The extent of the concentration of control necessarily varies with the degree in which the population of a state is unified by dependence upon utility servers which, each in its own line of endeavor, have covered large portions of the state with the instrumentalities through which they administer the trust confided to them. When a state is densely populated, with cities near each other, and especially if it be a small state, there is a temptation for utility corporations of at least some kinds, to extend their lines, plants or systems throughout the commonwealth, thus making their operations a matter of state, instead of local, concern. In states in which the population is sparse, with the consequent unsettled or comparatively unsettled territory between cities, with cities far apart, the temptation does not exist. The utility servers there are limited, territorially, in their operation. They are confined, largely, to the towns and their environs and are many, instead of being few in number and networking the state with their systems. Therefore, considering the question of density of population *alone*, it seems just to formulate the following laws, if we may so dignify them, bearing upon the efficacy of state, as compared with municipal, control:

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First, the desirability of state control over municipal control is to some extent enhanced by the presence of a dense population.

Second, the desirability of municipal control over state control is to some extent enhanced by the existence of a scattered population.

The second viewpoint above mentioned has to do with the state as to the degree of autonomy allowed its cities. Most of the cities of the Union are governed, with greater or less degrees of severity, under state legislation. I have no doubt that the majority of my hearers from abroad will testify sorrowfully to the fact. It may not be charitable, nor hospitable, to twit them with their misfortune, but I can not resist the assertion that we of California view them somewhat as we have been taught to view the so-called barbarian dependencies of imperial Rome or the uitlanders of the Transvaal.

Speaking with more exactness, and more seriously, I may instance this state as one of the few within which prevail what is surely a more just and a happier condition of affairs. We are proud to assert that California has done at least as much as any state in the Union, to make the citizen feel, to employ the stately phrase of Isaiah, that "the government shall be upon his shoulder." This is true, and for years has been true, concerning the government of her cities. City charters are made, by the constitution, supreme over enactments of the legislature in all that pertains to "municipal affairs," to adopt the words of the organic law itself. It is true that charters and charter amendments must be ratified by the legislature before they become operative, but the ratification is never refused. The asking it is purely perfunctory and I know of but a single voice ever having been raised, in a legislature of 120 members, against such a request. That instance was as far back as 1899, when Grove L. Johnson, the father of our present excellent governor, voted, on constitutional grounds, against the charter of San Francisco.

This statement serves to show to what an extent the cities of California govern themselves. It is no exaggeration to say that Los Angeles is as free from state interference in "municipal affairs" as California itself is free from national interference in state affairs. The statement is perfectly true.

It is a recognized fact that the control of public utilities is a proper function of government. Therefore, it is just to assert, that control should rest, all other things being equal, where the power of government rests. When states govern their cities, a greater ability to control utilities may be expected to rest in the state; but where cities govern themselves, we should successfully look for the ability and strength, in the city, to control at least the utilities which are local to it, or nearly so. We may, then, pause again to announce a pair of principles calculated to cast some light upon the question before us.

First, the possibility of a proper state control is somewhat heightened in those states in which cities are not autonomous.

Second, the possibility of a proper city control is somewhat heightened in those states in which cities are autonomous.

Having taken a general view of the subject from the standpoints of the density of population in a state and the degree of autonomy allowed to its cities, we may now consider it in another manner. Depending somewhat upon what has been said concerning density of population, a certain division of the entire subject may be suggested. It is proper to inquire, what is the best instrumentality for the control of:

1. Utilities operated throughout a state or in considerable portions of it, but partially in cities and towns?
2. Utilities operated outside of incorporated cities and towns, whatever their territorial sphere of operation.
3. Utilities operated wholly within small incorporated cities or towns?
4. Utilities operated wholly, or nearly so, within large cities?

Before taking up these four questions, it is proper to say that their consideration will proceed upon what may be called a California premise. Having drawn a distinction between states which allow their cities a full measure of self-government and those which do not, it seems necessary, in the interests of both brevity and clarity, to base all further discussion upon the assumption of the existence of conditions such as we have here. That side is taken as the point of vantage, to the exclusion of the other, for two reasons. The first is that the writer may stand more securely upon such a foundation, because the footing is familiar to him. The other, and much the stronger, is this: The California method for the government of cities is, unless the writer's patriotism and understanding have led him far astray, the proper one and the one to which all the states must eventually come. If I speak, then, in terms of California, you may think, after making the necessary additions and subtractions, in terms of commonwealths the affairs of whose cities are ordered in a different fashion.

In considering the first of the four questions just set forth and, in fact, all questions involving the exercise of governmental functions, economy, both of effort and of money, is to be at all times regarded as the helpful handmaid of efficiency. Very largely upon this consideration alone, it is clear that a utility which operates throughout a state or throughout a large part of it, and which invades the domain of a considerable number of cities, can best be controlled by a state board. Such a utility must be said to occupy a general, and not a local field, and therefore to require the attention of instrumentalities the powers and grasp of which are co-extensive with its own. If the plant, system or business of a utility corporation operating in a large number of cities were to be cut up, for regulatory purposes, into the bits requiring attention from each, under local control, the process would tend to remind one of the assault of the Lilliputians upon the sleeping Gulliver. Swift assures us that the attack was successful, but the result was achieved only at the expense of great concerted effort.

The second question has to do with all utilities operated outside incorporated cities and towns. No time need be expended in answering it. Of necessity, state control must be exercised in such cases.

We next consider the systems or plants operated within small cities and towns, and here we enter the realm of doubt, chiefly because the term "small cities and towns" covers so wide a range as to lack precision. It is not worth while to attempt to make it more precise. The effort would involve a separate treatment of municipalities of every possible size, from the least to those of from, say, 50,000 to 75,000 in population. It seems clear that utility properties in the smallest of these cities can best be handled by the state. The questions of principle involved in controlling a small utility concern are as big as in the case of the largest one. In a small town usually there will not be present the ability nor the money, the willing money, if I may use the term, necessary to handle the question. Further, and above all, in such places fairness is likely to be tinctured by local pettiness, with more or less glaring injustice as the deplorable result. Upward from these diminutive municipalities, it is difficult to say how far the state method of treatment should go. It seems necessary that the line should be drawn somewhere within the class now under consideration and which have been characterized as "small cities and towns," for, except in the case of local conditions affecting some particular utility in some particular place, the largest of the small cities can and should deal with the utility problems local to themselves. The solution of this branch of the question, however, naturally depends upon what is to be said about the large city and its relation, under the grouping we are now considering, to the general subject.

We come then, fourthly, to deal with the question of the control of utilities operated wholly, or nearly entirely, within large cities.

It would not be just to enter upon this branch of the subject without considering, in addition to what has been said about the justice of the grant of autonomy to municipalities, what may be termed the city problem. The general question of city government and management has been the riddle of the ages. The mere mention of Babylon, Nineveh, Tyre, Sidon, Athens, Sparta, Jerusalem, Rome, Carthage, Alexandria, Constantinople, Venice, Genoa, the other free Italian cities of the middle ages, the five towns of the cinque ports and the towns of the Hanseatic League, is enough to impress this fact on the mind of even the tyro in historical research. The student of present-day affairs can perceive no modification of the rule. Even in this country, a babe among the nations, with thousands of acres of open country, the census of 1910 showed the steady march of the multitude cityward. In some of the middle western states the rural districts showed an actual loss of population, while the cities grew enough to balance the loss in the country and, in addition, to show a substantial net gain for the state. We are prone to regard such phenomena as abnormal, to feel that the current of history has changed but such is not the case. Man is a gregarious animal and the city has ever been the haven of his desire and the goal of his ambition. The attainment of that goal by the individual does not, unfortunately, seem to work a betterment of the race. While man is content, in the pursuit of his destiny, to tread the highways and byways of the open country, to breathe God's free air, to "list to nature's teaching," he seems, in a measure, to live the life that such a contact might be expected to inspire; but when he becomes a denizen of the metropolis, with the sordid evils of the slum on the one hand and the profligacy and licentiousness of the idle rich on the other, with the myriad dangers and pitfalls between, he becomes, certainly, "a *little* lower than the angels," and adds his individual mite to the gigantic problem of the city, which "was and is and shall be."

Considerations like these have made the city a separate governmental entity within the nation, *imperium in imperio*. Little wonder we are seeing that cities must govern themselves. They have tasks set before them which no power outside themselves can perform. At a gathering in this city not many months ago, a prominent speaker made the assertion, "As the city is, so will the nation be," and the statement is as true as it is striking. The cities of every country are answerable for its future.

The realization of the existence of the city problem is what has brought you among us and what is making true lovers of humanity see a greater work before them as mayors of Chicago and Los Angeles than as governors of Illinois and California; and patriotism is, every day in an increasing degree, bringing noble manhood to the task.

It is the duty of every city to handle the city problem, to carry on the independent government which of right, not to itself alone, but to the nation and to humanity, it is its duty to administer. The government must be a forceful and a resourceful government. The government of a state is, under ordinary circumstances, a government of routine, while the pulsations of the great throbbing heart of the city, quickly responsive to the nervous movement of its every member, require the exercise of constant vigilance and energy. The big city, always meeting such crises, has within it the wherewithal to handle its problems and handle them better than any other power.

A part of the city problem is the control of the public utilities which are connected with its life, and, even more intimately, with the lives of its people. Such utilities are not merely those whose entire properties are embraced within the corporate limits of the city. The fact that a public utility corporation conveys light, or water, or power for many miles before it reaches the boundaries of a given city, should not free that corporation from the control of the city as to its operations and business within the city, granted that the principal business, or the greater portion of the business, of the corporation is to serve the people of the city. If a corporation serves a large city and incidentally attends to the needs of surrounding smaller towns, the controlling power of the city, within its own limits, should not be relinquished, whether the control, in the surrounding towns, be exercised by means of their own machinery or through state instrumentalities. It is only where a utility concern has so extended its field as to become practically state-wide in its operations, as we have said above, that the jurisdiction over it, locally, of a large city within the territory served by it, should be relinquished. A California city is, as to its city problems, as free from the domination of the state, as Connecticut, as to its affairs, is free from the domination of Massachusetts. Could it be contended that a Connecticut state commission could not, or that it should not, exercise control over utility corporations serving its people, merely because such corporations carry their products across the boundary between the states, whether in pipes or upon wires, and supply Connecticut with water or light from Massachusetts?

The presumption should be that every independent government, whether city or state, has the power and ability and is confronted with the solemn duty of dealing with and solving, to the ultimate analysis, all questions that spring from its being as the governmental entity presiding over the destinies of the territory committed to its peculiar care. It must either govern or not govern, It must either shoot or give up the gun. As to a city, the line can not be drawn at any point between its duty to dispose of its garbage and its duty to control its local lighting companies.

In the discharge of the duties of state and municipal boards, a constant overlapping of jurisdiction will necessarily result. That fact indicates the desirability of a constant interchange of data between the two systems, except where the public service might demand, usually temporarily, that information be witheld. Each state board should not only keep, in systematic and ready reference form, what may be termed a library of the data and information gathered as a result of its researches; but the law, and practice not forbidden by law, should afford every facility for the dissemination, among all city boards, of all portions of such data and information pertinent or convenient to the handling of the city problems. The city boards should, by the same means, afford similar aid to state boards.

It is natural for all officers, boards and courts to attempt to extend their respective powers and jurisdictions, and it is well that it is so. The exercise of that intensely human trait, carried by men into official life, conduces to the reduction to proper control of all subjects of governmental or official action. In the constant struggle to maintain in their proper places the lines of demarcation between spheres of official control, jealousies are likely to result. It is plain that such a condition is possible in all commonwealths in which the question of state or municipal control of utilities is being considered, and earnest efforts should be made to avoid it. Both systems are entirely necessary to the well-being of the people and each can be made of invaluable assistance to the other.

The question of the control of public service corporations is of surpassing importance today, and it will be so until wisdom shall determine to what extent public utilities should pass under public ownership and the acquisition shall be accomplished. The question may even be of importance after the feasible degree of public ownership shall have been attained, for reason may finally demonstrate that great and powerful utilities had best remain in private ownership. We are far from the solution of the question and time alone will furnish the answer. No patriotism is so lofty, no ability so great, but that it may be justly consecrated, in the meanwhile, to the performance of the task that is set before us.

A SUGGESTED SLIDING SCALE OF DIVIDENDS FOR STREET RAILWAYS, DETERMINED BY QUALITY OF SERVICE

BY JAMES W. S. PETERS, ESQ.[1]

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IN FRAMING franchise contracts the problem is to enlist a motive to economy and efficiency in the operation of public utilities by private corporations without introducing the speculative element into public utility investments, and without relaxing public control. In other words, to combine the advantages of public operation with the benefits of adequate public control.

It is probably true that public utility commissions, while recognizing the fact that capital investment is entitled to a reasonable return, do not lay enough stress on the necessity of giving the operating company an incentive to thrift, efficiency and economy in management.

The ideal regulation should, at the same time, secure the best possible service for the public and be eminently fair, and even a little liberal, to capital investment and the management operating the utility. The question of low rates is not so much the demand of the day, as is good service. It is economic waste for car-riders to stand and be subjected to nerve racking inconvenience in going to and from their daily tasks, if this can be avoided and seats provided at a fraction of a cent additional cost, per day, to the car rider.

The private motive of street railway companies should be subdued; not killed.

Dr. Delos F. Wilcox says of regulation by commissions:

> It is an effort to coerce an antagonistic motive and compel private corporations to operate public utilities, as if the companies were not controlled by private motives. It is a final effort to avoid the uncertainties and possible laxity in administration of public ownership, without losing the incentive and skill of private enterprise. This is a very ticklish business—this problem of subduing private motive, without killing it. A man would be a hardy optimist to be willing, in the light of present knowledge, to predict certain success of the plan of regulation by commission.

Floy, in his work on "Valuation of Public Utility Properties," also emphasizes the necessity of recognizing incentive and skill. He says:

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[1] Mr. Peters was until this spring president of the City Club of Kansas City and a member of the civil service commission. He and Dr. Wilcox are members of the franchise committee of the National Municipal League, of which Robert Treat Paine has been chairman.

> "An examination of the rulings of state commissions shows a tendency to place all corporations on the same footing as regards returns to investors; that is, regardless whether capital has been invested and conserved in a judicious and intelligent manner, or in an inefficient way; the precedents established indicate that about the same profit will be allowed in either case. Such procedure of course does away with all incentive to improve the earnings by cutting down expenses or to decrease the price or introduce new apparatus or modern methods. It removes the stimulus heretofore existing with the individual to make the very best showing possible and hence is a reasonable, valid and practical objection to control by commissions."

The utility commissions themselves recognize that thrift and economy of management has a money value. The Public Service Commission for the First District of New York, in a pamphlet on "Uniform System of Accounts" corroborates the necessity of recognizing and rewarding quality of service.

> It is not the purpose of public regulation by reducing rates to take from a corporation all the proceeds of enterprise and thrift that it may earn beyond a reasonable dividend. If a thrifty and intelligent corporation can, at a smaller expense to itself, supply a better public service than a careless and incompetent corporation, the former should not be compelled to charge the public less than the latter. To do so is to discourage progress and economy.

There is something on the order of a sliding scale in Cleveland in the automatic readjustment of fares as determined by the increase or decrease of the net income. In Boston's so-called sliding scale for gas contracts the dividends that are payable to capital investment are permitted to become higher as the price of a unit of gas is made lower to the consumer.

Mr. Louis D. Brandeis has summed up the beneficial results of this lowering of prices and reward of good management, as follows:

> "Boston has received from the sliding scale system far more than cheaper gas and higher security values. It has been proved that a public service corporation may be managed with political honesty and yet successfully and that its head may become a valuable public servant. The officers and employees of the gas company now devote themselves strictly to the business of making and distributing gas, instead of dissipating their abilities as heretofore in lobbying and political intrigue. As a result, gas properties, which throughout the greater part of twenty years had been the subject of financial and political scandals, developing ultimately bitter hostility on the part of the people, are now conducted in a manner so honorable as to deserve and secure the highest commendation."

What is suggested in this paper is a somewhat different, but in some respects a similar idea. It is to slide the rate of return to capital investment in accordance with the merit of the service rendered.

In order to reward service rendered by street railways, according to quality, it is necessary to find out what service really is and then to definitely and with precision grade or scale this service and reward it. Eventually some practical way must be found to do this. It is a logical necessity in the treatment of utilities, so long as these remain in the hands of private ownership and management.

The suggestion the writer makes is to have the mayors, or the commissioners of commission ruled cities each year appoint three citizens of repute, who shall during the year following classify to their satisfaction the elements constituting service and determine the relative value, in percentages, of these essential elements. At the end of the year, these three commissioners shall appoint for each of the at least five logical subdivisions of service analyzed and classified by them, three other reputable citizens, especially expert in those subdivisions to grade for the year preceding, the character of service received during that period; the subdivisions of what constitutes service into subjects and the grading of the subjects to be arrived at in a way similar to the method pursued by civil service commissions in determining the relative merits of applicants for technical positions of the city service. In Kansas City the civil service board has for the past two years filled practically all city positions, even such technical ones as city engineer, superintendent of the water works and municipal librarian, by using for each examination a committee of three citizen experts, to assist in formulating the examinations and to grade the relative merits of the applicants under the direction of the civil service board. This system has worked with widely recognized beneficial results.

After the classification of service and the grading of such service in percentages the suggestion for consideration is to permit an increase of, or deduction from, the fixed percentage allowed in the franchise to capital investment according as service is found in the grading to be above or below a standard or quality of service described as "fair and reasonable."

In civil service examinations 70 per cent is the grade usually agreed upon which an applicant must obtain to reach the eligible list. Having exactly 70 per cent means that he is just sufficiently well qualified to fill the position. Above this his excellence is graded; below this the percentage describes, in percentages, his unfitness. Following this precedent, is suggested grading service of street railways and the elements constituting such service as follows: 60, meaning "poor," 70, "fair and reasonable;" 80, "good;" 90, "excellent," and 100, "perfect."

If we agree that 6 per cent on capital investment is a fair and reasonable return for the interest upon capital and the hazard of the enterprise and are willing to add a margin up to 25 per cent additional to this amount to insure "perfect" quality (which however will never in practice be attained) then we can agree that a standard of 60 per cent will be entitled to 5½ per cent return on capital investment; 70 to 6 per cent; 80 to 6½ per cent; 90 to 7 per cent, and 100 to 7½ per cent. If in any particular instance those drafting a franchise are of opinion that this margin is too great or too small, it can be readjusted and the figures modified accordingly.

When the end of the fiscal year comes and the several citizen commissions of three each have been duly appointed to grade the several parts or subjects of service committed to them by the original or supervisory committee of three citizens, each commission shall proceed to grade the part committed to it, by such tests as in its discretion it deems appropriate, subject to general supervision of the original commission of three and when it has agreed to a grade of its portion, shall transmit this grade to the original commission. This commission shall then by checking up and adding the various percentages arrive at a final percentage which will be the grade upon which to figure the reward for service.

As a tentative subdivision of service into five parts and their relative weights; for each of which a sub-committee may act, it is suggested:

1. Operation and management; value 40 per cent. In this case the three citizens selected should be expert in railway operation and management.
2. Maintenance of plan against depreciation and obsolescence; value 20 per cent. This subdivision is essentially an engineering task and involves an inspection and inventory and practically the valuation of the plant. It is desirable that at least two of the citizens selected for this sub-committee should be expert engineers, especially qualified by experience in street railway construction and management and having at hand data in reference to the depreciation and obsolescence.
3. Economy and efficiency of management; value, 15 per cent. The three citizens selected for this subdivision should two of them be business men of high calibre, accustomed to the handling of large affairs, the other member should be familiar with accounts and legal procedure.
4. Safety and comfort of the traveling public and of the citizens; value, 15 per cent. As this subdivision is largely a matter upon which the riding public and the citizens have peculiar rights to individual opinions, the committee of three selected for this subdivision should be average citizens, in whose fair dealing and common sense, both the corporation and the public have confidence.
5. Accuracy and publicity of accounts and system in preserving the funds intact; value, 10 per cent. This subdivision is a matter for experts in accounting. At least two of the three commissioners for this subdivision should therefore, be familiar with accounts and auditing systems, the other member should be a well known reponsible citizen, accustomed to handling large affairs in a practical way.

In order to show how the various subdivisions suggested above can be practically divided into their simple component elements and those weighted relative to each other, there is attached hereto a tentative classification and analysis marked exhibit "A."

There should be given to the several sub-committees of examiners large discretion in determining the methods and details of arriving at a fair and accurate estimate and they should have access to all records kept by any existing public utility commission or other board having charge of the street railways and also to the company's books, accounts, records, maps and plans and all other documents.

The public utility commission should collect during the year and put at the disposal of these special commissioners data collected from efficiency and complaint records kept by them. Any citizen desiring so to do should be permitted to register a complaint and file statements and be heard in reference to any matter pertaining to service before either the original committee of three or before any of the sub-committees of examiners subsequently appointed. The original committee of three and the sub-committees of examiners should hold sessions open to the public and the press and should print and publish their proceedings, showing among other things the definite rating of each of the ultimate elements constituting service. Such publicity will tend to insure fairness and accuracy.

When a final grade is arrived at and used as the basis upon which to figure the amount of reward to the capital investment, it is a question whether this bonus should go entirely to an increase of the percentage allowed on capital investment or should be shared with the employees of the managing corporation, who in reality are the persons accomplishing the good results. If all bonus goes to the increasing of the rate of returns of capital investment, there will be danger of a speculative element entering in by the probable increase of dividends being capitalized and eventually added as a burden to fixed charges; on the other hand, if paid to the employees, the amount allowed as bonus is liable to be deducted by the corporation from salaries and wages paid by it, just as hotel proprietors decrease the salaries and wages of their porters and waiters, exploiting for their own advantage the liberality of the public in tips. The best plan undoubtedly is to see to it that the increase in returns derived by reason of excellence of service be equitably divided between the capital investment and employees—the employees to receive say two-fifths of the whole, the other three-fifths to be added to the fixed return on capital investment. The amount received by the employees should be pro-rated among them at the end of the fiscal year, from the president and general superintendent down to the day laborer, in proportion to the amount of salary or wages received by each during the year in question.

In determining upon a tribunal to analyze, classify, give relative weight to, and grade the elements of service, it was the first intention of the writer to specify existing utility commissions as being, by experience, best qualified for the task; but after consideration, the decision arrived at was to use instead citizens as examining boards, as the object to be attained is the satisfaction of the citizens. In addition to this the determination of quality of service on behalf of the public not only amounts to a passing upon the service rendered by the managing corporation, but also to passing judgment upon the general effectiveness and quality of the regulation by the utility commission, whose business and function it is to insist upon service from the corporation.

As the mayor is elected and the commissioners under the commission form of government are selected by the voters for many additional and other purposes than the selection of these examining commissioners, and as they represent, not only the rest of the public, but also as far as its influence goes, the street railway company, and as the modern idea is to concentrate responsibility in these officials elected by the people and hold them responsible for their acts, it would seem that the mayor or the commissioners of commissioned-ruled cities are the proper persons to appoint these examining boards. Where, however, so much power and discretion is more and more being concentrated on the mayors of cities and the commissioners of commissioned-ruled cities, there is all the more need for the people to have the right of recall of these officials when they fail in the performance of their duties.

To go back to the details of this problem, if 60 per cent means "poor" as the quality of each of the elements; 70 per cent "fair and reasonable;" 80 per cent "good;" 90 per cent, "excellent;" and 100 per cent, "perfect;" it is evident that when the several weighted elements are separately graded and a total of these percentages computed, there will be arrived at a fairly accurate general average of the total service For example: if the final percentage of service be 82½ per cent, this would be 12½ per cent better than 70 per cent, which is "fair and reasonable." Now, if we take for granted, that "fair and reasonable" service estimated at 70 per cent is worth 6 per cent return on capital and that perfect or 100 per cent service is worth 7½ per cent returns, this 12½ per cent above "fair and reasonable" would amount to a bonus of five-eighths of 1 per cent on capital investment. Using these figures in the case of a plant where the capital investment aggregates $30,000,000, this would amount to a bonus of $187,500; two-fifths to go to employees and the other three-fifths to an increase of the return on capital investment. This in dollars and cents would be $75,000 to pro-rate and distribute among the company's employees and $112,500 for increase on the return to capital investment. The possibility of such a result would undoubtedly be an incentive to skill, initiative economy, politeness and thrift in service and management, and in the case supposed, would be an additional tax of approximately only one-seventh of 1 cent on every 5-cent fare paid, or proportionately less, on a lower rate of fare.

It is not desired to make these suggestions as the final or only solution of the franchise problem or to take an antagonistic stand against the Chicago plan, where there is a partnership in the net income between the city and the corporation, after the corporation has received a fixed amount on its capital investment. This certainly insures in large measure supervision and control on the part of the city and gives incentive to thrift, economy and skill on the part of the management. Neither is the Cleveland plan opposed, where capital investment receives a fixed return and no more, the surplus being used to reduce the fare for there the right of control and regulation to protect the city is definitely provided for in a street railway commission. The idea herein presented for consideration, might be used in modification of either of these undoubtedly meritorious and up-to-date contracts.

If this paper does nothing more than emphasize the fact that future franchises for street railways should give something in the way of incentive for economy and thrift in service additional to the mere interest return on capital and compensation incurred by capital for hazards risked, there will have been accomplished something toward a satisfactory solution of the street railway franchise problem.

EXHIBIT "A"

A. Service in management and operation; value, 40 per cent.

Up to date equipment	100
Extensions	100
Transfer regulations	25
Shelter stations	25
Running of cars	75
Speed of cars	100
Ventilation of cars	50
Lighting of cars	50
Seats	100
Frequency	100
Courtesy of employees to public	100

B. Service in maintenance of plant against obsolescence and depreciation; value, 20 per cent.

Repair of tracks	75
Repair of cars	100
Repair of overhead equipment	50
Repair of power plants	100
Repair of car barns and other buildings	50
Repair of tools	25
Insurance premiums	20

C. Service as to economy and efficiency; value, 15 per cent.

Economy on purchase of supplies	100
Economy on use of supplies	100
Economy on schools of conductors and motormen	50
Economy on control	75
Economy on supervision, administration, etc.	100
———relative to employees	25

C. Service as to economy and efficiency; value, 15 per cent—Continued.	
———to present accounts	75
Settlement of damage claims (?)	50
Interest on balances	50
D. Service in safety and comfort of general passengers; value, 15 per cent.	
Noise	50
Dust	50
Ventilation	50
Repair of *pavement*	100
Distance between tracks	25
Fenders and wheel guards	100
Location of tracks as to curb	25
Watchman at crossings	75
Head lights	25
Relocation of tracks—for comfort of street traffic	25
Gongs	25
Cars passing each other	20
Smoke from power house	20
Treatment of persons injured	75
E. Service in accounting and preservation of funds; value, 10 per cent.	
Public reports	100
Segregation of accounts	75
Integrity of funds	50
Preservation of records	25
Simplicity of bookkeping	50
Integrity of capital account	100
Traffic statistics	100
Distribution of labor accounts and overhead charges	75
Car value costs	100

BUREAUS OF PUBLIC EFFICIENCY

A STUDY OF THE PURPOSE AND METHODS OF ORGANIZATION

BY MYRTILE CERF[1]

Madison, Wis.

ORGANIZATIONS for the purpose of studying the needs of a city and as an aid to efficient government have now been formed in a large number of cities, and are under consideration in other cities including San Francisco, Berkeley, Los Angeles, Oakland, Portland, Omaha, Pittsburgh, St. Paul and Norfolk.

In these cities where bureaus have been formed the work is being conducted either through:

1. An organization financed by individuals and seeking to effect remedies and working from without the administration as typified by the New York bureau of municipal research.

2. An organization created by the administration and financed by the city as typified by the Milwaukee bureau of economy and efficiency.

3. A development of the activities of one department of a municipality in the direction of control of all others, as typified by the Chicago civil service commission.

4. A development of the activities of one department of municipality in the direction of financial control only, as typified by the comptroller's office, St. Louis, and the New York commissioner of accounts.

Substantial success has been had under each plan of organization, but the work is almost too new to determine which plan will ultimately prove the most successful. In view, however, of the increasing interest in work of this nature, it may be of value to set out the advantages and disadvantages of each form of organization as they have so far been discovered. Before doing this, however, it may be well to study certain points that must be thoroughly weighed and considered before a bureau is decided upon, for the effect that they have on the plan of organization. It must be decided: (1) Is a bureau needed? (2) What shall be the purpose and scope of its work? (3) Shall it be temporary or permanent?

1. The fact that the government of our American cities is not what it should be is recognized by all. There is almost universally a lack of proper

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[1] Myrtile Cerf was educated at the University of California as a civil engineer. After leaving the University he engaged in the practice of public accounting in San Francisco and Los Angeles. For the past three years his attention has been given exclusively to the study of the problems of public efficiency. From 1910 to 1912 he was a member of the accounting staff of the Milwaukee bureau of economy and efficiency and at the present time is auditor for the Wisconsin state board of public affairs.

organization of the work, lack of proper records, and a failure to recognize the scope of the city's functions. The causes of this are many—election of men to administrative positions who are untrained in the problems they are called upon to handle, short terms of office and low salaries, by reason of which skilled men refuse to accept municipal employment; improperly drawn laws; lack of standards by which to measure efficiency; lack of coöperation between the several departments of the government; misdirected effort; inadequate facilities for doing the work; duplication of work, etc.

The short ballot, with appointments rather than election to the purely administrative offices; increase of salaries and permanency of term of office through proper civil service control and care in the framing of the laws will do much toward correcting certain of these conditions. But it will not correct fundamental errors in the organization or the planning of the activities of the several departments; it will not safeguard against duplication of work or of misdirected effort; it will not coördinate the work of the various departments; it will not set standards of efficiency; it will not set out in understandable form the facts of administration so that the public can properly judge results; it will not call to the attention of the proper authorities failure of administration of any department nor will it serve to point out the possibilities of enlargement of the scope of a department's work where such department has failed to recognize its full duties.

How, then, are these things to be cared for? It must be remembered that our American cities have grown so fast in the last decade that it has seldom been possible to plan methods of caring for conditions before they have arisen. Villages have grown into towns and towns have grown to be cities, with all the complexities of most cities, almost overnight, and conditions have been met by expediency measures. Then, too, many cities have been hampered by the fact that they have had no home rule. The result has been that each succeeding administration tried to take care of the conditions immediately confronting it, without any attempt to build along the lines of proper organization or to plan for the future. The remarkable growth of our cities has been reflected in the growth of our business enterprises. They, too, grew up with a haphazard organization in most instances, but the stress of competition forced them into a fairly early recognition of their condition with the result that they called to their assistance the experts in accounting, systematizing and planning, so that today the organization of American industries is the marvel of the world.

It would seem then that we must recognize that there are certain problems of municipal government that cannot be met with the present machinery and that these problems must be studied by men trained especially for such work and brought together under some bureau or department.

2. What shall be the purpose and scope of such a bureau? Shall it be merely advisory in nature or shall it have power to enforce its recommendations? Shall it limit its work merely to the installation of records and accounts that will record the transactions of the several departments under their present procedure, or shall it aid in reorganizing departmental business procedure and accounting methods and establish standards of efficiency? Shall it confine its work to reorganization under the present limits of departmental activity or shall it point the way for an enlargement of the department's field of activities?

Shall the work be confined to the present activities of a city or shall it be extended to cover fields of social service through investigation of conditions of living, to correlate the present departments with the findings and to suggest remedial legislation?

What, then, is the purpose and scope of a bureau or department of public efficiency? While every city has practically the same conditions confronting it, there will always be local conditions of policy or of a financial nature or reasons of restricting laws that will govern the decision on this point. But the experience of New York, Chicago, Milwaukee, and other cities where the work has been started should be valuable in determining this question.

In no city so far has direct power to enforce recommendations been given the bureau. In New York, the improvements in service were effected by publicity given conditions found after investigation, thereby forcing the department head in some instances to correct the evil pointed out where aid could not be secured solely upon suggestion. Results were also obtained by coöperation with the comptroller and commissioner of accounts who secured certain reforms through their control of finances. In Milwaukee the bureau was dependent upon action of the council to enforce recommendations where coöperation could not be had. In Chicago the power of the civil service commission to determine personal efficiency gives it rather more authority to control business efficiency than is had in other cities, even though the power is not directly conferred. In St. Louis, representing the fourth type of bureau, the control that can be exercised is limited to financial control, such as is now exercised by the comptroller and commissioner of accounts of New York.

The experience of the several cities indicate that while much may be done by a bureau acting solely in an advisory capacity, it is dependent upon other agencies to see to the carrying out of its recommendations. The result has been that the findings of careful and costly investigations have many times been ignored; that recommendations were only partially adopted without improvement of service, and attempt made to place the burden of the failure on the bureau; that a constructive program involving several departments would be defeated by the opposition of only one department; that opposition was engendered in most instances where reorganization meant reduction of the number of employees.

As has been noted, the only results obtained by any bureau except where coöperation has been had, has been through the power vested in some other agency; sometimes it has been by appeal to the mayor; sometimes through the city council; sometimes through the city attorney; sometimes through the comptroller and sometimes by having one city department take up the bureau's battles against another.

No bureau that has been in existence for a year but has had to use one or more and sometimes all of these means to enforce its recommendations. The conclusion would seem clear that in order to obtain results, it is essential that the bureau should be given powers within certain limitations. What these limitations should be will be discussed in the plan of organization.

If the work of the bureau is limited to the installation of records and accounts, that will record the facts under present modus operandi, nothing more will have been done than to provide means of comparing the results of one administration with another. With comparatively little more work and not much more expense, a study could be conducted looking toward betterment of service and the setting up of standards of efficiency which would mean in most cases a far greater annual saving than the cost of the study, and would do away with duplication of work and misdirected effort and permit of a comparison, through the establishment of unit cost records, of the results not only of succeeding administrations, but with the work of other cities.

Any comprehensive study of a department would naturally bring out the possibilities of development into larger fields of activities. How far these should be undertaken by a department under the guidance of the bureau will depend upon the particular instance and upon local conditions. But it is natural that any intensive study will produce possibilities of departmental development.

The question as to whether studies should be confined to what are known as the present departmental activities of a city or whether a bureau's efforts should extend as well into a study of social conditions is one that must be given the most serious thought. While it is true that a city is organized as a public body to safeguard the interests and promote the welfare of its inhabitants, the question arises as to whether the major portion of the public have yet realized that a privately financed organization such as an anti-tuberculosis association only exists because the health department or the building inspector have failed in their full duties; that if child welfare organizations exist through private subscription that the health, library, school, and park departments have missed an opportunity; that if private agencies are developed to give free legal aid and to protect the unfortunate from usury or oppression, or the ignorant immigrant from exploitation, the city or district attorneys have not realized the duties of their offices; that if child labor exists, the school department and the factory inspector are culpable; that if the cost of living is high and women's wages so low that decent lodgings cannot be had within their wage limit, then the board of aldermen or the city council will fail in their duties if they neglect to provide for the proper care of these girls in municipal lodging houses; they will fail and the police department will have failed in the recognition of their duties if dives and low dance halls and unregulated amusements destroy innocent youth; and the school and library and park departments will have failed for their neglect, with the means at their command, to provide decent, clean amusements as an off-set to the lures of the vice district.

No complete test of efficiency can be had without a study of these questions, and some of them are so closely related to problems of organization that they *must* be studied, but as stated above, the question in planning the scope of the work of the bureau is whether the public is prepared—have they been sufficiently educated—to recognize the city's duties in all things civic, and to support a bureau which undertakes to correlate social measures with departmental activities. This is the problem that must be decided by local conditions, but it would seem that while a bureau is in its infancy, such studies had best not be touched except as they relate directly to the problems of reorganization. In Milwaukee, where more of the so-called "social" studies were undertaken than by the bureaus of any other cities, the work was financed outside of the appropriation from city funds, and the aim was made to take up only such investigation as had direct bearing on problems of efficiency. A study of the scope of the work and the efficiency of the health department cannot be made without entering more or less into the fields of social investigation and the bulk of the work in the social survey in Milwaukee grew out of and was correlated with the study of the health department.

3. Shall the bureau be temporary or permanent? This question will have been partly considered in reaching a decision as to the scope and character of the work to be done. If it is to be purely advisory, giving aid through expert service to the incumbents in office, then its life will only be that of its creators or of a succeeding administration in harmony with its objects. Its assistance under such plan cannot help but be of value, but changes in office occur at such frequent intervals that it will not have time to build on sound lines, and for that reason its work will be more easily destroyed by the incoming of an administration opposed to its purposes.

Owing to the disorganized state of our methods of accounting and systems of operating, and the fact that in practically all cities changes of laws will have to be made before efficiency of service can be obtained, the scope of a bureau's work indicates a requirement in period of time that cannot be construed as temporary. There are serious objections from other standpoints to the creation of a temporary bureau. It renders it difficult to obtain the best men where the period of appointment is short; it makes the task of holding them difficult; it requires the payment of larger salaries; it prevents the undertaking of work that through its character cannot be finished within the indicated life of the bureau; each election threatens its life; it is forced to do work of a "showy" character to justify its existence; it is forced to fight against the constant endeavor to make it party to a political campaign. The experience of all bureaus indicates that the problem of bringing about public efficiency will require years of effort; that it can only be effected by a permanent organization working along definite lines; that it must not be subject to the whims of new administrations; that it is best organized as part of the governmental machinery.

Where, then, shall it be placed?

Three natural positions present themselves as bases for permanent organization, but as in the case of all points discussed above, a decision will be dependent on local conditions. The bureau can be made a part of the office of the comptroller, it can be made a separate department, or its work can be merged with that of the civil service commission.

It will be found in most cities that the comptroller is an elected officer and may or may not be in sympathy with the objects of the bureau. As one of the largest phases of the work is the development of the accounting system and financial control centering in his office, it is evident that the purpose of the bureau could be defeated and its work in all directions nullified if subordinated in the office of an antagonistic comptroller. There is the danger also that the location of a bureau in the department of a purely fiscal officer may cause it to lose sight of its broad purposes and to limit its work to supervision of accounts and finances.

The creation of the bureau as a new permanent department is desirable if there is no other department which could naturally exercise its functions. The tendency in modern city and state organizations is to limit the number of the departments, and to enlarge their fields of activities. This saves the general overhead expense of many high salaried officials and makes for a more concrete and responsible organization. The effect on other departments by the creation of a new department of the nature contemplated, is one that will require the most delicate handling. In some instance it will stir unfounded prejudice and develop antagonism without cause, and the greatest care will have to be used to convince the departments that the bureau will work in the friendliest coöperation and is not created for unfair criticism. This is necessary no matter under what plan the bureau is organized, for no matter how expert the members of the staff may be; no matter how exhaustive their study, the plans will fail if coöperation is not had from the administrative departments. The utmost effort must be made to obtain their good will and coöperation, for the bureau can at best but guide and point the way; the actual execution must rest in the departments. If the bureau fails to secure this aid, and perhaps even though it does secure it, but is created by council resolution or ordinance that is subject to repeal, it runs the risk of being discontinued whenever opposition is raised. The only way to guard against this is to make the bureau an integral part of the government through charter provision.

The third place of location for a bureau is in connection with the civil service work. As developed in Chicago, and as proven in factory organizations, business and personal efficiency go hand in hand.

No study of one can be made without touching on the other. It would seem then that the work should be correlated. Much of the same organization study is needed in both phases of the work, and the raising of the standards of personal efficiency cannot fail to have its effect on business procedure; the simplifying of methods of transacting business instantly reflects on the personnel of the employees and reclassifies the service; records developed for recording business transactions can be made to serve as tests of personal efficiency. Civil service is now a permanent feature of our municipal organization, and already, when properly administered, exercises a certain control over departmental activity. Its influence could easier be extended without arousing opposition, than could a new department be created to exercise control. It is essentially a department of technical service as distinguished from a department with executive, administrative or legislative functions. Its activities through the very nature of the service it renders are judicial in character, and the extension of its duties to include all phases of public efficiency would not change the character of this service. If this be done, however, the department should be planned as a department of public efficiency with civil service as one of its functions. This will give the broadest possible idea of its relations to the other departments and to the public and will allow it to be organized and developed along proper lines.

The character of the studies decided upon by the bureau will govern its organization. Dependent upon the nature of the work undertaken, there will be required accountants, engineers, statisticians, sanitarians, sociologists, etc. Some of these men will be needed as a permanent staff; others will only be called in as occasion requires, but there must be one man in charge, as director, with full authority and power to carry out the policies determined upon by the members of the board governing this department. He must have the fullest support and coöperation from this board and they should be in close touch with all of his work. Until the work is somewhat advanced and placed upon a fairly firm basis, the director should be free to select his staff from without the civil service list. The work will require men of the highest training, and in most cases such men are not seeking permanent positions and will not consent to examinations. It is highly advisable that at least in the first years of the bureau's work, it should secure the coöperation of a committee of the city council and a committee of the leading commercial and civic organizations and keep them advised of the plans of the bureau and the progress of the work. This public support will prove most valuable, but it should not be done at the expense of any department. Wherever an official or an employee indicates his willingness to aid in securing efficiency, the bureau must see to it that full credit is given him. If this idea is faithfully adhered to, it will bring into the work the fullest support of the departments and will produce a spirit of utmost faith and confidence in the bureau.

It is important that the bureau should have power to enforce its recommendations, but this power should be limited to the control of accounting methods and business procedure and not include decisions on questions of policy. It should have power also to coöperate with other departments and outside agencies in the study of social and economic problems. In drafting the law creating the bureau this feature should be one that would only be taken up on voluntary request of the department or other agency, while the power to compel all departments to keep proper accounts and records and to operate economically and efficiently and under civil service regulations should be vested in the bureau. Perhaps the best model on which to draft the law covering these points is found in the bill (Section 583, Session Laws 1911, Wisconsin) creating the Wisconsin state board of public affairs, which gives power to enforce as well as to coöperate. This is the first organization in any state planned to study the administrative departments in the interest of economy and efficiency, though several of the states through boards of audit or through the tax commissions are seeking to provide uniformity in accounting methods in their several departments. Under President Taft a commission appointed by him has been engaged for the past two years in the study of the various federal departments to correlate their activities and to point the way toward more efficient and economical service.

The method of financing the bureau or department of public efficiency must receive more than passing consideration. Unless the means are provided so that the bureau is secure from the danger of having its appropriation cut off by a city council antagonistic to its work, it will be in little better position than if created by resolution and holding place during the pleasure of changing councils. It has been deemed wise in many cities to safeguard the civil service commission against action of the council in reducing its revenue so as to render it powerless, by providing a fixed percentage of the tax levy for its maintenance in the same manner and for the same reason that the school, library and park departments are so financed.

Among the many duties of the bureau and among the most important will be the assembling either through its own staff or through a municipal reference library of the facts and results of studies being conducted by similar bureaus throughout the country. These would be made available to the various departments and the bureau would simply act as a clearing house and an interpreter of results.

As fast as it can be accomplished the bureau should supervise the issuance by each of the departments of monthly cost bulletins showing by comparison the cost by units of service of the previous month, the current month, and the same month last year. These bulletins should be distributed free to all citizens interested in receiving them and will prove one of the most efficient aids that can be devised for securing appreciation of efficient officials and condemnation of poor ones.

All cities contemplating the establishment of bureaus of efficiency should have in mind two important considerations.

First, efficiency means economy, but not *necessarily* through lessening of cost. It may require a greater expenditure than in previous years to secure an efficient health department, but the increased value of its work in safe-guarding the health of the people is surely *real economy*.

Second, The present condition in our cities is the result of years of unregulated growth. *It cannot be corrected in a day.* Full recognition must be given to this fact and if sound lasting reform of business and accounting methods is desired, the bureau must *not* be called upon to show results before *reasonable* time has elapsed. Then, if the work is being done as suggested, through coöperation with the various departments, it will be the departments which will make the showing and receive the credit and *not* the bureau.

To be successful, the work must be sympathetic rather than antagonistic.

The public is eager to learn the problems of its government and in no more effective way can this be done than by the creation of a properly organized department of public efficiency.

RESEARCH AND REFERENCE BUREAUS

BY EDWARD M. SAIT, PH.D.[1]

New York City

IT HAS been said that the spirit of Wisconsin is democracy and her method science. The same spirit and the same method prevailed among the little group of men who founded, in January, 1906, the New York Bureau of Municipal Research. These men had come to understand why successive reform administrations had failed to accomplish permanent results. In the words of R. Fulton Cutting, Mayor Low's administration "conclusively disclosed the insufficiency of reform by the ballot. The man without the machinery, animated by the noblest ambitions, is compelled to pursue them with an antiquated, rusty, unreliable mechanism that paralyzes progress." Mr. Cutting and his friends believed that the government machinery must be overhauled, systematized, brought abreast of the most approved business practice; and that officials should be placed in a position where faithful service would be easy rather than hard and where public scrutiny would be intelligent and effective. They wanted efficiency—efficiency of the official and of the citizen.

Attention was first turned to the budget. That is the point in the conduct of government at which scientific method can best reveal and prevent waste or stealing. The budget-making of that period left plenty of room for improvement. The departmental estimates were subjected to indiscriminate reductions running as high as 40 per cent, because there was no means of telling how far they were based on actual needs. As a result, the departments, exhausting their appropriations, had to be tided over with special revenue bonds which bore heavily upon the taxpayer. The bureau investigated the situation and found that the departmental estimates were inadequate, as not giving sufficient proof of alleged needs and not stating definitely the destination of the money, and that though supplies were appropriated to specific objects there was nothing to prevent the money being spent on other objects. The bureau advocated the segregated, functionalized budget.

An opportunity to work out the new system presented itself just at this time. The department of health, seeing that its estimates had been severely pruned each year, wished to make a really convincing appeal for funds and accepted the assistance of the bureau. The changes which were introduced met with wide approval. The departmental estimates for 1906 had contained only eleven items or two inches of printed matter. One of the items read: "Hospital fund excluding payments to private hospitals." By 1909 the titles had increased to a hundred and fifty-four occupying six printed pages. It now appeared exactly how much might be spent by each of the hospitals for salaries, vehicles, supplies, etc., and how much might be spent in fighting each of several communicable diseases, this last subject having been altogether ignored three years before. In 1907 the city government approved the segregated budget and requested the comptroller to prepare suitable forms for the use of the departments. The adoption of this reform made possible the intelligent granting of supplies as well as intelligent public observation of services performed. The next step was to popularize the budget somewhat in the manner of Tom L. Johnson, whose "tax school" and picture shows of scandalous assessments brought vital facts home to the citizens of Cleveland. Not only was publicity secured through the newspapers, but a budget exhibit was provided which promises to be an annual affair and which attracted 800,000 visitors last year.

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[1] Dr. Sait is assistant professor of politics in Columbia University and is one of the advisory editorial board of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW. He is also secretary of the Intercollegiate Civic League.

Budget reform was only one phase of the bureau's work. It also gave attention to reorganizing the business management of the departments, making detailed examinations of records and accounts and indicating the improvements which should be made. Thus, in the matter of the purchase of supplies, it was found that the lack of system allowed twelve different offices in a single borough to pay a wide range of prices for the same grade of coal in the same season. Thus, too, the investigation of the office of Borough President Ahearn revealed such misconduct that Governor Hughes removed him on charges of gross incompetence; and as the result of another investigation the senior commissioner of accounts resigned before the hearing of charges to the effect that he had employed members of his staff upon private work during business hours.

These are given as examples of the early work of the bureau. It would hardly be possible to indicate here the wide range of activities and the solid achievements which are described in the bureau's pamphlet on *Six Years of Municipal Research.* Some of these services, such as the establishment of a bureau of child hygiene or the improvement of the method of inspecting slaughter-houses, cannot be measured easily in terms of money saved. Others can. It is due to the bureau that the annual collections of the water department have increased by $2,000,000 and that a sum of $723,000 has been recovered from street railways for paving done between the tracks at public expense. The reorganization of the office of commissioner of accounts in 1907 has been responsible for the saving of large sums through its activity in the elimination of graft and waste. Incredible as it may seem to New Yorkers, their city is beginning to serve as a model in such matters as financial reorganization and the adoption of new administrative methods. The Bureau of Municipal Research, though it may by no means claim all the credit, has been the most effective single instrument in rousing and directing public opinion.

Not less notable has been the expansion of its influence through the country. The little candle has shed its beams into the murky atmosphere of many another city. Chicago, Milwaukee, Cincinnati and Philadelphia have adopted the segregated budget; departmental reorganization, accounting revision, and other reforms have proceeded in these and other cities along the lines laid down in New York. The Metz fund ($10,000 a year for three years) is being applied to promote the adoption of scientific methods of accounting and reporting. The most significant fact, however, is the spread of the bureau idea. Leaving out of consideration the various city clubs and chambers of commerce which are beginning to give attention to more or less technical problems of municipal government, there are at least twenty private and public agencies scattered through the country all working with the single object of securing administrative efficiency. The conviction that public business must inevitably be less efficient than private business is breaking down. Vague, uncritical aspirations are giving way to persistent and systematic application of practical remedies.

Most of the privately-sustained bureaus, a list of which will be found at the end of this article, may be regarded as offspring of the New York bureau. Not only have they set before themselves the same objects and proceeded with very much the same methods, but the experts chosen to guide the work have often been schooled in the parent institution. Now that the Training School for Public Service[2] has been established, with a fund of $200,000 for the first five years, a much larger force of men will be available for this and similar employments.

What have these bureaus accomplished?

The Chicago Bureau of Public Efficiency may be taken as an example. It was organized in 1910 under the ægis of the city club, though with money raised by private subscription. The purpose was to continue, on a somewhat wider basis, the work which the Merriam commission had done in investigating city expenditures; for reforms can be secured only through persistence and iteration. By drawing attention once more to some of the commission's reports the bureau persuaded the city to undertake an electrolytical survey, modify faulty specifications for wood block pavement, and create a municipal repair plant for asphalt roadways. It introduced the segregated budget and brought about changes in accounting methods and municipal contracts. A series of reports was published on the organization and conduct of the county offices. These will be useful to students of county government. Mismanagement, antediluvian methods, graft, and waste are perhaps natural conditions where officials are

[2] See National Municipal Review. vol. i, p. 305.

chosen on a long ballot and left to go their own sweet way between elections. The judges of the circuit court, who have the power of fixing the number of employees in certain of the county offices, were shown to be no more zealous in the public service. The county treasurer, O'Connell, would not allow himself to be investigated. This raised a question of fundamental importance. If the bureau gave way, its prestige and the future effectiveness of its work would be seriously impaired. Nothing of the kind happened. A pamphlet was published; and in it such ugly facts were disclosed that the treasurer has undergone a change of heart and submitted his books to inspection. As Dr. Allen says, "there are few men who want to be crooks and there are none who want to be known as crooks."

The Cincinnati Bureau of Municipal Research, founded about the same time and supported by eight associations including the city club and the chamber of commerce, has also had a useful career. It has secured the adoption of the segregated budget, reorganized the business methods of the park department, installed a new system of record-keeping in the board of health, brought about considerable changes in the specifications for wood block and brick pavements, and made recommendations regarding the purchase of supplies, tenement house inspection, and other matters. Equally imposing is the record of the Philadelphia bureau. It is now working, at the request of city officials, upon the standardization of supplies and numerous projects of reorganization. In Philadelphia, as in Cincinnati, the new reform administration has taken full advantage of the assistance which the bureau is ready to afford.

The public agencies are relatively few in number and for the most part different in scope. Those in Baltimore, Kansas City (Mo.) and St. Louis are merely intelligence bureaus. While efficiency is their end, the means do not include any expert review of departmental organization and business methods or constructive recommendations for improvements. Their function is a limited one: to collect and classify such materials as will be serviceable to city officials or to the public (including the newspapers). They are repositories of municipal experience. When the city council applies for information regarding garbage disposal or taxicab rates or municipal lodging houses, it will be told what has been done in the principal cities of America and Europe; and not only what the law is, but how the law works. Under the old dispensation aldermen simply groped about in the dark, treating each problem as if it were a novel one in the experience of mankind. The establishment of such reference bureaus was recommended by a committee of the National Municipal League in 1910; but only in the three cities mentioned above does there appear to have been much specialization.

There are other types of public agencies, however, whose functions approach more nearly those of the private bureaus. There is an efficiency department in Pasadena which has begun a study of the city departments. In New York the commissioner of accounts saved the city $618,680 last year by means of his investigations, although his efforts were directed along lines calculated to make expenditure more efficient rather than to decrease it. In Milwaukee a Bureau of Economy and Efficiency was erected by resolution of the common council shortly after the election of Mayor Seidel in 1910.[3] At the outset it formulated a comprehensive program providing for a preliminary survey of the organization and conduct of the various departments, a social survey which would look into the conditions of living, and finally an efficiency survey designed to find remedies for whatever defects might be revealed. These inquiries were conducted with the idea that the object of government should be community welfare in the broadest sense. Something of their exhaustive character may be gathered from the fact that seventeen reports were issued within a year and a half, the most important of these examining certain functions of the departments of health and public works and making constructive recommendations. All the expenses of the bureau, which came to an untimely end with the advent of a new administration in April of this year, fall short of $50,000. Yet if all its suggestions are adopted, the city will save something like $200,000 a year, not to mention the extension and improvement of service.

The Boston Finance Commission, which was established in 1907 and continued under the charter amendments of 1909, enjoys a more independent position. Not only is it appointed by the governor, but the city is required to make a minimum annual appropriation of $25,000 in addition to the salary of the chairman. The commission is required to "investigate any and all matters relating to appropriations, loans, expenditures, accounts and methods of administration affecting the city of Boston or the county of Suffolk." Last year it made fifty-two reports. They covered such various matters as the operation of the charter amendments, the city debt limit, contracts for street lighting and refuse disposal, improved means of fire prevention, increase in teachers' salaries, and proposed pension acts. The most complete report (237 pages) had to do with the school system and showed that its administration was fully entitled to the public confidence as being honest, economical, and intelligent—a pattern for other departments to follow. In a review of the year's finances, on the other hand, the mayor was sharply criticized for padded pay-rolls and improper allowances for overtime. On the order of the city council a bureau of municipal research was established as an adjunct to the commission in the spring of 1910.

Probably our experience is too short to settle the relative merits of public and private bureaus. Both have succeeded. There is room for both. In New York the bureau and the commissioner of accounts have happily supplemented each other. On the one hand efficiency departments are as essential to the proper functioning of city governments as they are to the success of business corporations; and on the other hand government ought to be subjected to close and continuous scrutiny from the outside, something which may be done more effectively by a group of experts than by the inchoate mass of voters. It is said that a public agency will meet with more generous coöperation on the part of officials and have easier access to records and accounts; yet we find the Chicago bureau forcing the county treasurer to submit to investigation, while Mayor Fitzgerald does not hesitate to ignore the recommendations of the Boston Finance Commission. Public agencies may be moved or suspected of being moved by partisan considerations; their dependence upon varying political conditions may be illustrated by the history of the office of commissioner of accounts in New York; and, unless protected by charter provisions, they may be swept away with a change of administration.

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[3] See National Municipal Review, vol. i, pp. 420, 460.

With the advance in administrative ideals and methods, efficiency bureaus will become much commoner. Their value has been demonstrated. But some things, especially the training of public officials and the collection of data covering the whole field of municipal activities, may well be entrusted to other hands. Before our universities there lies a splendid opportunity, an opportunity for increasing their own prestige and for doing notable public service. It is an opportunity which will not be neglected. Already municipal reference bureaus have been formed in three state universities.

Wisconsin led the way in July, 1909. The bureau, which is attached to the university extension division, started with an ambitious program and has met with encouraging success. Information is being gathered on all phases of city government, from sewage disposal and the control of public utilities to smoke abatement and the care of trees. It is made accessible through the publication of bulletins—one on commission government is already in the second edition—and through correspondence. Last year the bureau answered 1500 inquiries coming from practically every city in Wisconsin and from every state in the Union. It should be observed that cordial coöperation with city officials is made the easier because the director is at the same time secretary of the League of Wisconsin Municipalities and editor of the League's magazine, *The Municipality*. Similar in scope and character is the bureau which was established at the University of Kansas two months later. It functions as a clearing-house ready to furnish whatever data municipal authorities may call for. In all departments of the university, such as law or engineering, specialists are ready to assist with advice on technical and difficult questions. Through the initiative of the bureau a league of municipalities has been formed and coördinated with the bureau by the appointment of the director as secretary. The cost of maintenance cannot be ascertained in either of these cases, as the office force of the extension division is utilized. For Wisconsin $5000 would be an outside estimate. The University of Nebraska has had a bureau since the spring of 1911, the state having appropriated $10,450 to pay for municipal and legislative reference work during the next two years.

Other institutions have entered the field, but either tentatively or with limited objects in view. Thus the municipal reference department at Whitman College has begun collecting materials and will coöperate this autumn in the formation of a league of municipalities in the state of Washington. The University of Illinois, failing to secure funds from the legislature, has managed, with the assistance of the university library, to gather documents and reports and to answer inquiries which have been received. At Harvard, where an annual sum of $2500 has been subscribed by alumni, Professor Munro lays emphasis, not upon having information for official use, but upon affording students practice in handling the concrete problems of municipal administration. Those attending his classes are assigned topics for investigation among the first-hand materials; and when city authorities ask for enlightenment, students search out the facts. Similarly the Politics Laboratory at Columbia Uuniversity, endowed for two years by Hon. Patrick F. McGowan, looks chiefly towards increasing the effectiveness of class-room instruction and the interest of the students. With the opening of the school of journalism the laboratory will probably assume a larger rôle and certainly have a more complete equipment.

The universities are therefore approaching common ground from different directions. Harvard and Columbia have the student principally in view; Wisconsin and Kansas, the public. Eventually it will be found desirable to use the plant for both purposes, because with little change in management it is equally applicable to both. We need not look far ahead to see the universities real teachers of government; on the one hand training men for public service as well as citizenship (and training them without the waste of much attention on Aristotle's classification of states or Webster's illuminating constitutional discourses), and on the other hand acting as the educators of communities by the distribution to them of the fruits which experience has borne in cities throughout the world.

Of course the researchers have raised up enemies. Critics are always criticized. It is natural that plunderers should make what resistance they can when their offences are detected or their operations curtailed; and even good citizens, though they would rather have their purses saved than their souls, are in the habit of looking upon all uplifters with not a little suspicion. Indeed, our preachers of efficiency are sometimes self-complacent, sometimes esoteric, and narrow (perhaps reformers have to be men of one idea) in the emphasis which they place on method as opposed to personnel.

Did not Wells wickedly satirize them in the Baileys, "excessively devoted to the public service," and especially in Altiora Bailey who found "trees hopelessly irregular and sea cliffs out of place?" Yet Esmeer, who hated the Baileys like poison, couldn't keep away; they had what all the political world desired—facts. And the bureaus, whether loved or not, are bound to be a power in the land because they have the facts and know how to use them intelligently. Their idea is not so much to expose and punish the unfaithful servants as to support and commend the faithful; not so much to jail grafters as to install business systems which will make grafting difficult; not so much to reduce expenditure as to see that none of it is wasted. They are also bent upon creating an informed and alert public opinion. In such a program there is surely nothing which is open to attack as dangerous, visionary, or impracticable.

APPENDIX

Private Agencies

(The date of establishment and the expenses for the last year are given)

Alameda County Tax Association: Secretary, W. S. Gould, Oakland, California; March, 1911. $6000.

Chicago, Bureau of Public Efficiency: Director, Harris S. Keeler, 315 Plymouth Court; August, 1910. $150,000 for three years' work.

Cincinnati, Bureau of Municipal Research: Director, Rufus E. Miles, 804 Neave Building; July, 1909. $16,784.

Des Moines, Bureau of Public Efficiency and Economy: Secretary, J. G. Mitchell; October, 1911. $800 for first four months.

Hoboken, Robert L. Stevens Fund for Municipal Research: Secretary, Genevieve W. Beavers, Hudson Trust Building; 1910. $4000.

Hudson County, Citizens Federation: Secretary, Winston Paul, 537 Summit Avenue, Jersey City; 1912. $5000 or $10,000.

Jersey City, Bureau of Municipal Research: Director, Frank Stevens, 46 Montgomery Street; February, 1912.

Memphis, Bureau of Municipal Research: Secretary, E. O. Gillican, Tennessee Trust Bldg., 1909. Activities suspended temporarily in 1911 through lack of funds.

New York, Bureau of Municipal Research: Directors, W. H. Allen, Henry Bruère, F. A. Cleveland, 261 Broadway; January, 1906. $97,763.

Philadelphia, Bureau of Municipal Research: Director, Jesse D. Burks, 731 Real Estate Trust Building; July, 1909. $35,000.

Pittsburgh, Committee on Municipal Research (of Civic Commission): Secretary, Allen T. Burns, 324 Fourth Avenue; January, 1909. $6478.

Wallingford (Connecticut), Bureau of Municipal Research: Secretary, Martin F. Plunkett; February, 1911. Expenses negligible.

Wayne County Bureau of Municipal Research: Secretary, N. C. Heironimus, Richmond, Ind.

Westchester County (New York) Research Bureau: Director, Otto G. Cartwright, 15 Court Street, White Plains; October, 1910. $10,000.

Public Agencies

Baltimore, Department of Legislative Reference: Director, Horace E. Flack, City Hall; January, 1907. $3,573.82.

Boston, Bureau of Municipal Research (of Finance Commission): Director, George A. O. Ernst, 410 Tremont Building; 1910. $5000.

Kansas City (Missouri), Municipal Reference Bureau: Director, Charles H. Talbot; 1910. $3000.

Milwaukee, Bureau of Economy and Efficiency: Secretary, John E. Treleven; 1910. Dissolved, 1912.

New York Commissioner of Accounts: 280 Broadway; 1873. $219,169.

Pasadena (California), Efficiency Department: Mayor, William Thum; 1911. $2000.

St. Louis, Municipal Reference Library: Jesse Cunningham, City Hall; October, 1911.

Academic Agencies

Columbia University, New York City: Politics Laboratory, 1911; Directors, Profs. Charles A. Beard and E. M. Sait.

Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts: Bureau of Research in Municipal Government, 1911; Director, Prof. W. B. Munro.

University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois, Municipal Bureau, 1911; Director, Prof. J. A. Fairlie.

University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kansas: Municipal Reference Bureau, 1909; Director, Prof. Richard R. Price.

University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Nebraska: Legislative Reference Bureau, 1911; Director, Prof. Addison E. Sheldon.

Whitman College, Walla Walla, Washington: Municipal Reference Department, 1910; Director, Prof. Charles G. Haines.

University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin: Municipal Reference Bureau, 1909; Director, Ford H. MacGregor.

TAXATION IN PHILADELPHIA

BY LOUIS F. POST[1]

Chicago

PHILADELPHIA was characterized some years ago by Lincoln Steffens as "corrupt and contented," but he saw a saving remnant. And there was one. Active in this remnant was Rudolph Blankenburg, of whom we hear as a successful and respected manufacturer and merchant, now approaching the age of three score and ten but perennially youthful and hopeful and public spirited. Mr. Blankenburg's activities in his apparently hopeless fight during his "thirty years' war" were doubtless to the gangsters a joke. Last year, however, he was elected mayor.

The cartoonist of a local newspaper celebrated his induction into office by picturing him as "The Old Dutch Cleanser." It was a happy thought. Philadelphia laughed and applauded, thanked God and took courage.

The new mayor had work cut out for him. Philadelphia finances were in a deplorable state, due to neglect followed by bossism, extravagance and worse—as usual. For years large amounts of current expenses had been paid from loans. It is necessary now that both income and borrowing capacity be increased. Mayor Blankenburg's first annual message, September 20, 1912, must have been awaited therefore with interest and anxiety.

The situation needed a master hand, the outcome was disappointing. The Associated Press telegraphed to the country his proposals contained in "a message remarkable for unusual recommendations." These have been severely criticized, in some respects justly. The subject of taxation is yearly attracting increasing attention, yet the mayor did not appear to have thought very profoundly. His suggestions generally were reactionary. Not all were so, but taken as a whole his message is like the old time mince pie which was full of ingredients, some of them wholesome.

Proposing an occupation tax, from which Philadelphia is now free, the mayor said:

> This, it would seem to me, is an equitable proposition, for all citizens enjoying the privileges and protection of our municipality should not only be willing but glad to contribute their mite for the maintenance of that government.

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[1] Mr. Post is the editor of *The Public* and one of the leading and most trenchant advocates of the single-tax in the country. He has a justly earned reputation as a student of taxation.

Men otherwise intelligent and public-spirited, as is Mayor Blankenburg, are frequently ill-informed on the subject of taxation. He has failed to see that all citizens already do contribute much more than a "mite" for the maintenance of government.

An editorial in the *Saturday Evening Post* of October 26, 1912, quotes census figures showing that the average family of five persons contributes in taxes almost $180 yearly, and this, says the editor, "takes no account of whatever indirect burdens the tariff tax imposes by raising the price of protected goods." Thomas G. Shearman in *Natural Taxation* (p. 27), estimates conservatively the latter tax at three times that which is collected at the ports.

Now every owner or occupant of a house in Philadelphia pays taxes on that house. If he occupies but a room or rooms, he pays a real estate tax. Take the case of a boarding house. All inmates pay equally for food, but they pay differentially for their respective lodgings. The boarder in a desirable room pays a large price; the boarder in the third story back pays a small one. These prices include rent of land, interest on the cost of the furniture, interest on the house, repairs, water rent and taxes, always and everywhere, excepting only in the case of paupers and criminals—they being tax eaters.

Students of taxation know that taxes fall in undue proportion and with undue severity upon the humbler classes, generally known as wage-earners, whose share is not to be lightly regarded as a "mite." The cautious Shearman (p. 33) estimated for 1880 that "taxes consume directly and indirectly at least 15 per cent of a laborer's average income." He showed further, (p. 36) that disproportionate taxation is a powerful and persistent factor in the unequal distribution of wealth. It works cumulatively toward concentration in a few hands, producing on the one side poverty and on the other swollen fortunes. It is undeniable that the humbler classes pay vastly more than their share already. Shearman says "ten times"! Then why tax a man additionally because he has an occupation?

Occupations are natural and necessary, and the lack of occupation for multitudes of men is a matter which excites anxiety among the thoughtful. On October 10, 1912, F. O. Walters, a Kansas City grocer, was jailed because of his refusal to pay such a tax. His protest may be commended to Mayor Blankenburg. He said. "I won't pay it. I pay a state tax, a county tax, and a city tax, and I don't see why I should be made to pay a tax for making a living. I can't afford to pay this extra tax, and if you are going to fine me for not paying it, you might as well do so, because if I pay it you may have me in here for vagrancy later." A fine for not paying a tax, or a fine for vagrancy induced by paying the tax—what is the difference?

On the same day Thomas Morrison was taxed because he washed soiled clothes for pay. He was given ten days to pay the tax, in default of which Kansas City would put him in jail (and go dirty). In Kansas City they call the occupation tax a "license fee." The term has a pleasanter sound. In other cities, presumably in Philadelphia and Kansas City, a wealthy automobilist pays a license fee or occupation tax (they call it "a fine") because he has run his car at a murderous rate through the streets of the city—his usual "occupation." Still another "tough" pays a license fee or occupation tax of $10 (they call it "a fine"), for going on a drunk—*his* usual "occupation." We are absurd. Boasting of our civilization, yet we fine men for industry and fine them for idleness, we fine for virtue and we fine for vice and even for crime.

What is the proper course?

Occupation should be encouraged instead of being taxed; criminals should be imprisoned instead of being fined.

Mayor Blankenburg says that the proposed occupation tax would not be a burden upon wage-earners, storekeepers, professional men or any persons who follow a gainful occupation. The mayor is apparently not aware that the mercantile license tax in Philadelphia is such a burden to thousands of humble people as I am informed, that it is a perennial source of iniquity, annoyance, irritation and corruption, and that many attempts have been made to repeal it.

In view of the fact that every man, owner, lessee, lodger or boarder, directly or indirectly, pays a real estate tax proportioned to the value of the real estate occupied, whether the whole house or a part of it, whether the cellar or the top floor, what justification has Philadelphia for asking any other kind of tax?

The mayor says it is in return for the enjoyment of the privileges and protection of the municipality. So far, so good. Let us concede that privileges and protections should be paid for by all citizens. But they are, in fact, so paid in Philadelphia now. Doesn't Mayor Blankenburg see that the entire financial benefit of the taxes spent for those privileges and protections attaches to land, always to land, and to land only? And that it raises the rent of land, which is thereupon promptly extracted by landlords from tenants? Humbler individuals pay taxes for good government in their rents, and they, as compared with richer classes, are already overburdened.

The mayor is influenced by a vicious principle of taxation, namely, that each should pay according to his ability to pay. The *just* principle is that each should pay according to the benefit he receives.

This principle Mayor Blankenburg must have followed in dealing with customers during his long and honorable private business career. It is the principle which he should try to follow in dealing with Philadelphia's customers, generally known as "citizens." As good government cheapens labor products, but increases the value of land and in the long run of land only, the cost of government should be derived not from products, but from land.

The mayor proposes also an out-put tax upon goods manufactured in the city, say $1 per $1000. He estimates that this tax would produce a revenue of $750,000. It would be a backward step, if the policy of Pennsylvania is, as I understand it has been for many years, to invite manufacturers.

To this end, stocks of goods and machinery are untaxed by the state; manufacturers selling their own products are exempt from the ordinary mercantile license tax; manufacturing corporations are exempt from the 5 mills tax on corporation capital stock, as well as the corporation tax on net incomes, paying in Philadelphia only on land and buildings.

Hasn't this policy of simplicity and directness made Philadelphia attractive to manufacturers? and in fairness shouldn't it be extended to all industries?

The mayor's proposal to tax vault spaces under side walks is good. But if sub-sidewalk space is public property why not rent it for full annual value instead of taxing only a percentage? If not public property, doesn't it add to the value of the adjacent lot if the owner is privileged to appropriate it and in that event is it not already taxed ? If not, why not?

The state tax on automobiles in Pennsylvania is $10. The mayor proposes in addition a city tax of 25 to 50 cents per horse power per annum, his justification being that

> No one will gainsay the fact that automobiles are largely the cause of the heavy cost of street repair and maintenance—particularly on the macadam and country roads, of which we have more than four hundred miles—and add materially to the labors of the department of public safety.

But an automobile traveling at moderate speed on wide rubber tires is not a road breaker but a road maker. The damage by automobiles to macadam and soil roads is due to excessive speed, which causes suction of the road material as well as danger to pedestrians, an evil which should be prevented by criminal penalties instead of being licensed by taxation.

The mayor proposes also a tax on overhanging signs. He says they are innumerable in Philadelphia.

Such a tax is bad. Every overhanging sign is an aggression on public property, an eye-sore and a menace. In Philadelphia the evil is said to have attained proportions which make the city streets a mess of ugliness, perhaps beyond those of any city in the country; and although the mayor says there is a law forbidding them on some streets, that law is apparently more honored in the breach than in the observance. Aggression should not be licensed but forbidden. Signs are private property; private property should not be allowed beyond building lines.

Although the mayor refers to the defacement of the city's highways and suburban landscapes by these signs, it is somewhat difficult to understand whether he wishes to get a revenue from the signs or to repress them and their ugliness. If the latter, it should be remembered that the power of taxation should be used for revenue and not for police regulation.

Household furniture is not taxed in Pennsylvania, whose methods, however faulty, may not unfairly be said to be simpler and better than those of any other state in the union. The mayor suggests reform backward. Concerning the tax on household furniture which was repealed in 1867, he says:

> It is somewhat strange to me that while real estate is highly taxed, the contents of the dwellings escape entirely. A general exemption of $300 for household furniture and furnishings would seem reasonable, but everything above that is a fair subject of taxation, and would not affect the people of small means, but would impose an equitable tax upon those well able to pay. I have before me a tax bill levied in the city of Cape May, N. J., which taxes the value of land and the value of buildings separately, and also separately the value of furniture and personal property. The value of land, $7,100; the value of buildings, $10,000; the value of personal property, $1,000; a total value of $18,100, at the rate of $2.25, making a total taxation of $407.25.

The mayor says a tax on household furniture would be "equitable." But furnishings and other personal property never have been equitably assessed anywhere. It is not in the nature of things that they can be so assessed. It would require omniscient intelligence to do it. The history of taxation shows that attempts to assess personal property equitably have generally been a joke, sometimes a tragedy, and always and everywhere a foundation for schools in perjury.

A tax on furniture and other personal property is a tax on comfort and decency, and an inducement to deceit and double-dealing.

Always, too, the rich are favored at the expense of the poor. No better proof of this is needed than the item which Mayor Blankenburg furnishes to support his suggestion. Here in fashionable Cape May are a lot and building worth $17,100, an expenditure incurred for the purpose of sheltering furniture and other personal property worth only $1000! Truly an interesting case—especially so when we look for the New Jersey definition of personal property subject to taxation "according to true value." It includes all goods and chattels, all debts, and all public and corporate stock, and whether within or without the state.

The greatest cause of corruption in government is indifference, neglect. The cause of neglect of government by humbler classes is that the cost is largely concealed by reason of indirect taxation. (Shearman calls it "crooked" taxation). People pay for government without knowing it. For instance, which of the readers of this magazine knows, even approximately, what he and his family pay for the support of the government at Washington.

Take a "horrible example" from Philadelphia.

The illuminating gas used by the city corporation is served "free" to the city by the United Gas Improvement Company. Anybody who thinks that this company furnishes anything free is an innocent. The city's bill for gas is in fact paid for by an increased price to the citizen consumers of gas in Philadelphia—by consumers of gas only. These consumers are then taxed on their own use of gas according to their consumption respectively, 15 cents per 1000 feet, which is collected by the company from consumers and paid to the city by the United Gas Improvement Company; that is to say, consumers of gas pay for their own gas and for the city's gas, and then are taxed, each according to the volume personally used, 15 cents per 1000 feet. If this tax were direct, there would be a riot in Philadelphia in twenty-four hours. It is indirect (concealed in price), and has therefore continued for fifteen years. This is a special tax imposed upon a certain class, largely humble. It appears from the mayor's message to amount to $1,304,028.78. The mayor does not seem to recognize that it is not only a tax, but also a peculiarly "crooked" tax. He refers to the difficulty of reducing not the tax on gas, but the price of gas.

The mayor is desirous of increasing the borrowing capacity of the city, which is constitutionally limited to 7 per cent on taxables. Obviously the only stable basis for such a percentage is on immovables, such as land and buildings. But Mayor Blankenburg proposes increasing the borrowing basis by adding such evanescenses as "occupation" and "debts at interest."

The state of Pennsylvania, in order to "relieve" financially able people, taxes those whose necessities compel them to borrow money on mortgage. This is the 4 mill tax on money at interest, mostly mortgages, collected as a state tax, three-fourths returnable by the state to the various counties to "relieve real estate." The owners who are so fortunate as to be free of the necessity of borrowing do not pay any such tax.

The mayor's proposal is that the tax be named a city tax instead of a state tax. Not to increase the city's revenues. Change of name would not do that. But in order that by means of a verbal juggle a further constitutional basis may be had for loans to the city.

The proper course with this tax would seem to be to abolish it, an example for which may be found, I understand, in the neighboring states of New York and Maryland. It is one of the taxes which thoughtless legislators put upon lenders supposing that lenders pay it, but which tend with increasing pressure to burden borrowers.

Mayor Blankenburg also proposes to substitute the occupation tax for the poll tax. Both are unjust and absurd. The first is a tax on doing something useful, the second on being alive.

A hopeful section of the mayor's message is that wherein he proposes to reform Philadelphia's methods of assessing real estate, a matter which he well says is of great importance, and to which he proposes to refer at a later date.

In Pennsylvania, fortunately for Philadelphia, state taxation is divorced from county and municipal taxation; real estate (land and improvements) being subject to local taxation only. There is thus no contribution to the state government by real estate, and no state board of equalization is required to supervise assessments of real estate. Thus, also, there is no temptation to under-assess one county as compared with another. The real estate tax in Philadelphia is for her exclusive benefit.

Now, the assessment of real estate is a business of extreme importance and delicacy, and in Philadelphia it is badly managed. The methods are a hundred years behind the times. Assessors do not even separate land and buildings; and, as the mayor points out, the assessors are independent of the city government, although the city pays their bills. The mayor is out to reform the matter by drastic legislation. More strength to his elbow! But, strangely enough, he does not mention as a basis for increased borrowing capacity an increased assessment on central business property.

Two years ago the Philadelphia councils employed outsiders to investigate assessments in seven wards of Philadelphia. They were the tax appraisal experts of the Manufacturers' Appraisal Company of Cleveland, operating under the Somers assessment system which Mayor Tom L. Johnson introduced in Cleveland and which after trial he strongly endorsed. The councils appointed local experts in real estate values to indicate, for the use of the appraisal company, a unit of land value at the middle of every block, and to check and supervise the work of the appraisal company's experts. The company, in accordance with the Somers method, then called public meetings in every ward in order that the units might be criticized by the citizens. Figuring from the units finally set by public opinion the experts, using the Somers mathematical tables, reported in detail the usual discrepancies and iniquities that are familiar to students of taxation everywhere.

It appears, however, that no relief is to be obtained from the re-assessment of dwellings in general. The mayor states that the assessment of two-story dwellings (200,000) and of most of the three story dwellings (100,000) is practically up to full value. Yet the appraisal companys' experts, on units furnished by the local experts, estimated an approximate under-assessment of $500,000,000 for the whole city. Of this deficit $100-000,000 was within a quarter of a mile of the city hall, $16,000,000 having been missed from only three properties. On the other hand, in one single block there had been an over-assessment of $500,000. A trust company at 515–521 Chestnut Street, assessed at $700,000, was appraised by the experts at only $453,106; and 537 Chestnut Street, in the same block, assessed by the city at $225,000, was appraised by the experts at only $149,265. No. 701 Chestnut Street, assessed by the city at $90,000, was appraised by the experts at only $76,283.

When called to an account by an interviewer, the president of the assessing board said that his own dwelling was over-assessed $2000; yet, the Pennsylvania terminal, directly opposite the city hall, and appraised by the experts at $10,677,878, was assessed by the city at only $5,500,000. The Reading terminal, valued by the experts at $7,319,100, was assessed by the city at only $4,500,000. The Mint Arcade, across from the city hall, valued by the experts at $4,063,078, was assessed by the city at only $1,250,000. The Wanamaker store, opposite the city hall and valued by the experts at $17,378,219, was assessed by the city at only $9,250,000. The Masonic Temple, opposite the city hall and valued by the experts at $3,762,256, was assessed by the city at only $2,000,000—exempt from taxation, the Lord knows why if anyone does!

The explanation of these gross under-assessments and over-assessments is that the city assessors work by rule of thumb; the appraisal company, with the local experts, worked by public methods and mathematical tables.

An example of the Philadelphia assessors' method of "how not to do it" may be found by comparing 713 Chestnut Street, assessed at $90,000, with 725 Chestnut Street assessed at $125,000. These lots are within a few feet of each other, are of precisely equal area, and are occupied by buildings precisely alike; yet one is assessed for $35,000 more than the other and by the same assessors.

It would not be profitable to discuss at length the mayor's proposal to tax the physical properties of public service corporations, for this would require legislation at the state capitol. In order to divorce state and local taxation, a commendable idea, the state of Pennsylvania reserves to itself taxes on public service corporations, namely, a tax on the market value of capital stock (5 mills) and a tax on the gross receipts of those companies (8 mills).

The mayor himself does not consider his proposal seriously, but only as a possibility. But his language regarding these physical properties is scarcely just. He says:

> The assessment and taxation of physical properties of public service corporations should be considered. At present corporation franchises are not taxed. Assuming that a fair valuation of franchises would add $100,000,000, and that they were taxed at the same rate as other properties are now taxed, this would mean an increase of $1,000,000 in current revenues.

Now as the value of these physical properties is a part of the market value of capital stock (taxed 5 mills) and necessary to the production of gross receipts (taxed 8 mills), it is obvious that they are not exempt from taxation. The justice of the amount of the tax is another question.

The mayor has a further proposal as a basis for borrowing. He says:

> It is well known that our mills and factories and the real estate of all manufacturing establishments are assessed far below their actual value. This has been done for many years to encourage manufacturing. A reasonable proposition, it appears to me, would be to ask the board of revision of taxes to assess all such property at its full value, because such reasonable assessment would add scores of millions of dollars to the real estate values of our city and thus increase our borrowing capacity very largely. To avoid placing any additional burden upon our manufacturers, the tax rate upon all such property might be proportionately decreased. A special tax rate upon the real estate of all manufacturing establishments (which, when paid upon a full valuation, would only equal the present full rate on a low valuation) would injure no one and would help us in the present dilemma by probably $7,000,000 additional to the borrowing power.

As the borrowing limit of the city is 7 per cent this statement indicates that manufacturers in Philadelphia have been yearly under-assessed to the extent of $100,000,000, thus placing an undue tax burden on non-manufacturers to the extent of $1,500,000 yearly, the tax rate being 15 mills.

In addition to the protective tariff, I have already indicated three legislative "favors" enjoyed by manufacturers and manufacturing corporations in Philadelphia. The mayor mentions a fourth, namely, a systematic and illegal under-assessment of mills and factories "for many years to encourage manufacturing."

The fact is well known, says the mayor. To whom? It was known to manufacturers, but was it known to those who had to make up the deficit?

The mayor tells us that the two-story dwellings and the three-story dwellings are practically fully assessed. These number 300,000. Divide $1,500,000 by 300,000, and we have $5 as the average "mite" contributed by small dwellings to "encourage" manufacturers. The encouragement is forced, illegal, "crooked" and unjust.

Several thoughts are suggested by the mayor's admissions.

The assessors have for many years violated their oath of obedience to the law, which requires equitable assessment at fair market value.

The mayor does not propose that the perjured assessors shall be impeached.

Does the mayor fail to understand that the business of government is to prevent favoritism, not to establish it?

The mayor fails to see that governmental "favor" is euphemistic for "graft."

While the mayor proposes to increase and correct the present illegal assessments of manufacturers, the correction will not be actual, it will be fictitious, on paper only. For he proposes, after having raised the assessment to lower the tax rate to manufacturers (to them only) so as to make the present illegal favor a legal one.

The mayor's declared object is not to raise revenue, but only to use the thereby increased but non-productive assessment as a basis for borrowing $7,000,000—payable by posterity. In other words, the mayor proposes to establish a $7,000,000 liability against posterity, but at the same time to cut off the natural means of collecting by taxation the usual sinking fund to extinguish that liability. He would violate that sound doctrine which for permanent improvements only may justify the contraction of public debt within reasonable constitutional limits, against taxable properties, productive of revenue sufficient to take care of the liability within a reasonable time. That reasonable time in Philadelphia is now thirty years. The mayor wishes to extend the period to fifty years.

Nobody questions the sincerity, the honesty, the public-spirit of the present mayor of Philadelphia. It is evident, however, that he has not given serious attention to the sources of public revenue.

The subject of taxation, with its simplification and improvement, is stirring all civilized nations. It received its strongest modern impulse from the mayor's own city, Philadelphia, when Henry George was born there. Before his time, Benjamin Franklin, Philadelphia's most eminent citizen, had anticipated George, had urged the single tax, and had lamented his inability to persuade the people to adopt it. And now, at a time when cities of Germany, Australia and New Zealand and the government of England are appropriating the "unearned increment," when a dozen cities of Northwest Canada have abolished taxes on improvements, when even the recent provisional president of China is preaching single tax, the mayor of Philadelphia seeks new ways to tax and harass industry and to find airy bases for borrowing, which might well make seasoned gangsters sit up and take notice.

Philadelphia seems determined to throw away its public treasure, a growing unearned increment, the real commonwealth of every community. It turns to levying on private property for public purposes instead of using those common values. In the last analysis Philadelphia must either tax land values or labor values. The mayor revives discarded schemes to tax labor and its products, to tax debt, and to use abstractions as a basis for loans. As someone has said, the city is in the position of a millionaire throwing away his wealth and then seeking ways to borrow money to buy pork and flour.

It is reported that some members of councils' finance committee are in favor of adopting the mayor's program in its entirety. The report is not surprising. Councils had already approached the borrowing limit within $7,000,000, and were afraid that increasing the tax rate would arouse public indignation. But presto! A reform mayor of manifestly honest purpose shows them where they had overlooked a few score millions of borrowing capacity, but shows them millions the city has little or no right to while ignoring the larger millions that belong to it.

The days of occupation taxes and taxes on money at interest are fast going the way of taxes on chimneys, windows and newspapers. But if Mayor Blankenburg has his way and does not alter his course, such taxes will fret Philadelphia for fifty years to come, for the mayor proposes to make their assessment figures the "basis for fifty year loans." He says he has other schemes to present later. Before doing so he should consult sound principles of taxation.

E. Benjamin Andrews has truly said, "Unjust methods of taxation have caused more misery in the world than any other one thing, the rum traffic not excepted."

While joining with all others in honoring Mayor Blankenburg for his many years of unselfish service for the public good, I trust that plain speech in a matter of utmost importance may not be considered as conflicting with that sincere respect which I hold for him and his record nor inconsistent with the confidence in his integrity of purpose which I entertain and wish cordially to express.

HOUSING AT THE LOS ANGELES CONFERENCE[1]

BY JOHN IHLDER

Field Secretary, National Housing Association

THE Los Angeles conference of the National Municipal League combined with great success the two functions of such a gathering, a general discussion of problems which confront all our cities and a definite application of suggested remedies to the particular city in which the meeting is held. Because of the great prominence given to the second of these functions many of us felt that the Los Angeles meeting was of greater practical value than any other conference of recent years.

Unfortunately, however, the necessity for lengthening the program on Wednesday afternoon prevented those of us who were especially interested in housing from sharing in this practical benefit, as it was necessary for the authors of the two formal papers presented to hurry through them; and even then no time was left for discussion. Had it not been for informal discussions at other times during the week and for those impromptu conferences which are in some respects the most valuable feature of the League's annual meetings, we housing workers would have felt that our contribution was of little value. The two papers were in themselves merely introductory to an expected discussion which would have given their suggestions practical application.

The first paper was by John Ihlder, field secretary of the National Housing Association. It dealt with the need, under a democratic form of government, of volunteer citizens' associations which shall take the lead in organizing public sentiment; which shall when necessary investigate abuses, suggest remedies and conduct campaigns of education; which shall uphold public officials who are endeavoring to enforce the law in spite of determined opposition from those who profit by its non enforcement or shall inspire zeal in officials who for any reason are inclined to wink at violations or evasion. What is everybody's business is notoriously nobody's business, and as everybody's business in a large city is a many sided affair there must be a number of citizens' associations, each devoted to one clearly defined field of work so that it may have the definite knowledge and the unity of purpose necessary to success. This is illustrated by the fact that in those cities which have volunteer housing associations or committees the most definite and practical progress is being made, while in those which have none the work of housing betterment either never has been taken up or if taken up has, after a short time lagged or gone off along easy and impractical lines where there would be no opposition.

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[1] This paper not only gives the gist of Rev. Dana W. Bartlett's paper read at Los Angeles but Senator Burnett's comments thereon. In addition to this the article is interesting in itself for the direct contribution it makes to the discussion of the highly important subject of housing.

The second paper, by the Rev. Dana W. Bartlett, of the Los Angeles Housing Commission, gave the local point of view. After an eloquent plea for a city of homes in contradistinction to a city of tenement houses, it touched briefly upon the very good work which the commission has done in raising standards in the "house-courts" where the Mexican peons live. Then it dwelt at length upon various schemes for model housing. One of the quotations used to enforce the plea for a city of homes deserves repetition as it illustrates admirably the new point of view of the English business man. It is a recommendation by their chief medical officer to the directors of the great Guinness brewery.

> Until our families are given the opportunity of being comfortably and decently housed we cannot expect to do much in raising their social and moral standards. I, therefore, make bold to look forward to the day when a brewery model village is built where our people can obtain a small one or two storied cottage at a reasonable rent. That the tenement house system, except for the very poor who must continue to reside in the congested city area, is a retrograde step, I am strongly of opinion; such a system neither conduces to good morals nor a high social standard of living. The well paid laborer, whose earnings are constant, should be given a chance of having a self-contained house of his own; such a house can be made home-like, attractive and comfortable. In few cases is this possible in a tenement building.
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> "Admit," added Dr. Bartlett, "that the drift toward the city will never grow less, yet, if you have had a vision of the new city of the new democracy, you will concede that he who helps the workingman to build a real home for his family is helping to transform a serious menace into a blessing to humanity. Let us then ruralize the city and urbanize the country. Let us help to surround every city with a hundred industrial villages laid out as carefully as the suburban estate of the millionaire."

Then follow the plans which, as they must be summarized, had best be summarized in the speaker's own words:

> To sum up, an adequate local housing program should contain provision for:
>
> Erection of model house courts for those who must remain in the built up city, displacing entirely the usual type of tenement.
>
> Carefully supervised California tent houses to be allowed for temporary dwellings or for invalids.
>
> Encouragement of Los Angeles plan for selling building lots on small payments, thus making it possible for workers to own their own homes.
>
> Extention and perfection of rapid transit with reasonable carfare that cheaper land may be within reach of all.

The maintenance of temporary shelter by the municipality on city owned land.

The development of an agricultural policy by the city that many of the poorest families may be fitted for a living upon the land.

Especial emphasis to be placed on the building of garden cities about every new industrial center, thus helping to make industrial life ideal rather than degrading.

Such are the proposals. It had been planned to have State Senator Lester G. Burnett, author of the California state tenement house law, lead the discussion. Fortunately a copy of Dr. Bartlett's paper had been submitted to him before the conference and he had written some comments upon it. "I have read Mr. Dana Bartlett's paper with interest," he wrote, "and it is very interesting from a humanitarian and, it might be said, from a theoretical standpoint, but it does not help a member of a legislative body such as a state legislature. There is no trouble in getting a legislature, at least the California legislature, to agree that great reforms are needed in the housing of the people. But then comes that question, so crude and which sounds so impolite, 'what are you going to do about it?'"

At this point it is necessary to leave the conference for a moment and describe in a brief paragraph the present housing situation in Los Angeles. In Los Angeles there is no citizens' association which takes an especial interest in housing. The Housing Commission, an official body, practically stands alone. Until some of its members became interested in promoting plans for garden suburbs it confined itself to the work of cleaning up the house courts which were a disgrace to the city. This work, which was largely in the hands of a salaried inspector, has produced good results. Meanwhile the San Francisco Housing Association, a citizen's organization called into existence by the plague of cheap and unsanitary tenements which began to afflict San Francisco after the fire decided to set wholesome standards for all multiple dwellings. It inspired the tenement house law which Senator Burnett put through the legislature last year. This law, while it marks a great step in advance, is admittedly not adequate. Yet Los Angeles, so far as it expressed itself at all, opposed its enactment. After the law was passed strong efforts were made by Los Angeles people to have it declared inoperative so far as that city was concerned. Meetings to protest against it were announced and the newspapers published statements as to the alleged injury it would cause tenement house owners.[2] To outsiders who had thought Los Angeles a city of homes such vociferous opposition to tenement house regulation was a surprise. So also was the lack of any public-spirited support of the law. Only one side was presented and that was the side of opposition. Finally, however, the city's legal representatives decided that the city would have to submit to the law.

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[2] According to the Los Angeles *Express* of August 17, 1912, there have been erected in Los Angeles since the law went into effect approximately 235 tenement or apartment houses. Mark C. Cohn, chief clerk in the building department, is quoted as saying, "We received many complaints when the law first became effective, but

With this history in mind I looked up the Los Angeles tenements during conference week. I found that probably the greater part of them are of the class called apartments, but that they overcrowd their lots and so promise dark rooms in the future as their number multiplies, that they are very frequently of flimsy construction and very infrequently provided with adequate fire escapes. Such tenements as these, with the inevitable shifting of population, will become shelters of the poorer people. Then Los Angeles will have a slum compared to which her old house courts were a jest. Yet I could find no organization and only a few individuals who were willing to face this immediate problem and try to devise effective means of solving it. Perhaps in that may be found the reason for Senator Burnett's query, "What are you going to do about it?"

At a luncheon meeting held during the conference week Dr. Bartlett described at some length the plans for a garden suburb in which he is interested and for which some $15,000 have been subscribed. The next speaker described the existing tenement and apartment houses and the apparent reluctance to regulate them so as to safeguard the health and lives of their inhabitants. Then turning to Dr. Bartlett he asked, "Suppose you succeed in building your garden suburb, suppose you populate it with workingmen's families each living in a little cottage surrounded by lawn and yard. As the city grows and pressure of population increases some one will figure out that these cottage lots would bring in a greater return if covered with tenement houses. How are you going to prevent his acquiring these lots and erecting on them multiple dwellings just as bad as those now being erected in other parts of the city? In other words, what does this proposed garden suburb promise more than a temporary

the objections have disappeared almost entirely. Of course there are some provisions of the law that could be made less ambiguous, but as a whole the measure has been a success."

Later, on September 18, the Los Angeles *Examiner* published a long interview with the city building inspector in whose hands the enforcement of the law has been placed. In this interview Mr. Backus is represented as opposed to a repeal of the law, but as advocating certain changes in it, some of which would weaken it. The important point, however, is that Los Angeles, having accepted the law much against its will, is now beginning to find that regulation is a positive benefit. Were there only a strong citizens' organization in Los Angeles definitely interested in housing betterment, it could take advantage of this change of view and work for higher standards—and consequently greater benefit to the city—than those now set by legislation.—J. I.

alleviation, ending in the venture being finally taken over by the speculative tenement house builder?" Neither then nor later did Dr. Bartlett answer. For the answer is, "We would regulate the use which may be made of this land." Then would follow the question, "Why not regulate now in those parts of the city where bad conditions are developing? The tenement house evil in Los Angeles is today in its early stages. Why not grapple with it now when it is comparatively small and so assure a city in the future which really is without tenements and without slums, instead of a city composed of a ring of garden suburbs about a constantly expanding core of unwholesome tenement houses?"

Were such proposals as those of Dr. Bartlett confined to Los Angeles there would be no purpose in retailing this discussion in such a publication as the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW; but unhappily they are not. In city after city as it awakens to the fact that it has a serious housing problem there are men and women whose consciences will not permit them to remain inactive, but who instinctively seek some easier method than that of squarely facing the problem as it exists. "If," they argue, "we provide better homes the workingmen will leave the unwholesome tenements and the problem will settle itself." But unfortunately bailing does not stop a leak. The places of those who leave the tenements are taken by others and as semi-philanthropic building never yet kept pace with the growth of a prosperous city, new tenements are erected to supplement those already strained beyond their capacity.

Yet the projects advanced by Dr. Bartlett sound so attractive and some of them considered by themselves, not as a solution of a city's housing problem, are so good, that they call for brief comment. First is the erection of model house courts to take the place of the usual type of tenement. The house court can be made not only sanitary, but also most attractive. Los Angeles has some examples in which houses rent for $25 a month that would excite the admiration of any housing reformer—clean, quiet courts bordered by a double row of tiny one and a half story detached cottages of three or four rooms and bath. Though these cottages are very close to each other they are so low that sun and air can enter all their windows and they leave space for grass and flowers. But while Los Angeles permits the erection of cheap frame or other flimsily constructed, tall, box tenement houses which cover nearly all their lot, it is difficult to see how good house courts can compete at low rentals.

The proposals for tent houses and for temporary shelter provided by the municipality on city owned land, instead of helping to solve one problem will probably raise two others. San Francisco's experience with temporary shelters for several years after the earthquake should be answer enough to the second proposal. As for the tent or the shack, it may be a sufficient shelter from the weather in Southern California. It may, when it stands alone in the woods or on the seashore, be an admirable place for a family to spend a few weeks; but a tent or shack community is a different proposition. With the crowding of people together there arise questions of sanitation and morality. The tent or shack town does not provide that privacy which is necessary to a wholesome family life. The walls of a tent are less barrier to sight and sound than the thin walls of our eastern tenement houses, against which social workers find such cause for complaint. For it is to be remembered that the inhabitants of this tent town will be, not a group of people with high social standards who are temporarily roughing it, but the expected horde of European immigrants whose vanguard is already creating some serious social problems in Los Angeles. Nor can it be argued that these tent or shack towns are to be merely temporary affairs, as Dr. Bartlett does in connection with his third proposal of encouraging the selling of lots on small payments, "thus making it possible for the workers to own their own homes." Outside of many of our older eastern cities there have developed just such shack towns and most of them began with the idea that they were temporary shelters. The Canadian government last year published an address by Dr. Charles A. Hodgetts, medical adviser to the committee on public health of the Commission of Conservation. In this address Dr. Hodgetts described some of the shack towns on the borders of the newer cities of the Dominion. Intended for the temporary accommodation of newly arrived immigrants they often became the overcrowded, permanent homes of a foreign population which pays exorbitant prices for the accommodation it secures. Such a colony is that at Sault Ste. Marie: "This colony is crowded into a lot of miserable shacks, filthy both outside and inside; no cellars, no drainage, closets on the surface of the ground, vile beyond description," etc.

As to the plea that the erection of a temporary shack will permit the workingman to gradually build his own home, Dr. Hodgetts again presents evidence:

"Should the married man live in the suburbs, it is perhaps in a shack town, the whole family being crowded into one or two rooms intended to serve as a kitchen annex to the house he hopes to build. His great expectations are slow to materialize and frequently he, or some other member of his family, dies in the making of a home, victims of unsanitary housing. This is an example of the working man being the victim of land speculators whose sugar coated offers have led him to launch out on a scheme of housing which they knew well it was difficult for him to carry to a successful issue. The man has paid too heavily for his land and finds the cost of building plus the interest and annual payment a greater burden than he contemplated."

Three other schemes Dr. Bartlett presented:

1. "The extension of rapid transit so that cheaper land may be within the reach of all." Now the extension of rapid transit is, unquestionably, on the whole a great benefit. But it must not be forgotten that while rapid transit makes greater areas accessible to people living in the center of a city, it also makes the center of the city accessible to people living over greater areas, and so in a very decided way tends to increase pressure of population as well as to decrease it. Moreover ease of locomotion and a cheap fare are not the only factors for the laboring man. Time spent in going to and fro is also an item of importance. And last, rapid transit never yet prevented the development of tenements, the use of cellar dwellings, etc., near the center of the city. The bad conditions in Los Angeles—or in Boston— can frequently be matched in cities so small that one can walk across them in half an hour, or even in the laborers' sections of the wealthiest and most beautiful residence suburbs of New York and Philadelphia.

2. "The development of an agricultural policy by the city so that many of the poorest families may be fitted to earn a living on the land." This, it seems to me, is very far from the question under consideration. We are considering, not how to get rid of a fraction of the city's population, but how to house city wage earners who propose to earn their living and make their homes in the city in constantly increasing numbers.

3. "The building of garden cities about every new industrial enterprise." This is a most excellent proposal and if practical measures are taken to carry it into effect it will do much to prevent the development of new slum areas on the outskirts of our industrial cities. For, of course, it can apply only to plants which locate outside of the already built up area. The large proportion of new enterprises which take buildings in the old section of town and by adding to the labor market in those sections increase the crowding of population there could not possibly be affected. But there seems to be a growing tendency on the part of manufacturers in certain lines to move their factories into the suburbs and the country. The advantage of this in many ways is obvious—cheaper sites, lower taxes, more room for expansion and for better planned and better lighted buildings. If to these can be added other advantages the wholesome movement away from congested districts will be accelerated.

But this involves forethought, careful planning of details and coöperation among all the agencies which control the city's development. The new industrial suburb must be convenient to railroad or water transportation, its drainage must be good if it is to provide wholesome sites for homes, its street system, its sewers and its other public services must be planned so that they may at once or in the future when the city grows out to it, be made an integral part of the city's system. And perhaps as difficult, certainly as important as anything else, the men who head these new industrial enterprises must be convinced of the wisdom of such planning, which probably will cause greater initial expenditure and may result in deferred if ultimately greater profits.

Such garden suburbs, however, do not present a solution for the already existing and steadily growing housing problem of Los Angeles and every other American city, for they effect but slightly and indirectly the conditions in the older built up sections. To amplify Senator Burnett's question, "What are we going to do about existing evils? What are we going to do to prevent the continuance and the spread of these existing evils?"

I would answer by asking another question: "Is there any way except by setting a minimum standard for every habitation in the city and enforcing that standard?" Small houses with open space about them cannot compete financially with rows of tall, flimsily built, box tenements that fill their lots though to the community which must directly or indirectly pay the bills for preventable deaths, sickness, immorality and inefficiency, the tenement is considerably the more expensive. But if a legal standard is set and enforced so that the tenement houses have light and air in every room, so that they provide for proper sanitation, so that they safeguard their inhabitants against danger from fire, so that they assure some degree of privacy, so that they are decently maintained, then the good, small house can, in nearly all of our cities, successfully compete against them. And in that lies our hope of keeping the traditional American home.

SHORT ARTICLES

THE THEORY OF THE NEW CONTROLLED-EXECUTIVE PLAN

THE RECENT adoption by Sumter, S. C. of a new type of commission plan of government with the appointive city manager, is important. It is the first time in the United States that a municipal chief executive has been made appointive and put under continuous control instead of independent and under intermittent control.

Pending the appearance in America of this principle, the short ballot movement was headed for a stone wall. For in demanding the reduction of the mischievous multiplicity of elective offices, we are met by the question "what offices would you make appointive and who would appoint them?" The natural and easy answer is to follow the tendency of the times and advocate casting all appointive power on the nearest chief executive. In New York State, for example, the New York Short Ballot Organization has presented constitutional amendments to the legislature, the effect of which is to give the governor control by appointment over the rest of the state ticket, namely, the secretary of state, state treasurer, attorney general, comptroller and state engineer and surveyor. It is easy to point to the parallel of the United States government for justification, or to the state of New Jersey.

The matter of safeguards on the appointing power is brought up. The politician takes it for granted that the state senate will have power to confirm or reject the appointments of the governor. The New York amendment, however, recognized the fact that the senate habitually utilizes the power of confirmation to accomplish a theft of the whole power of appointment. Forthwith, the responsibility of the governor for the appointments becomes something of a myth, and public control is baffled by the inability of the people to know whether it was the governor who made a given appointment, or some senator. For while the number of rejections by a senate may apparently not be large, the real number of rejections is very large indeed. The governor may not even informally ask the senators, or the boss who rules them, if this or that nomination will be acceptable, knowing well the limitations which the politicians will set upon him.

The history of the president's appointive power and its constriction by "senatorial courtesy" show evils similar to those in New York state.

Likewise, in cities where the council must confirm the appointments of the mayor, an interchange of authority occurs and the council soon controls the patronage without the corresponding responsibility.

With such cases in mind, the New York Short Ballot Organization drafted its amendment so as to give the governor power to appoint these minor state officers, without confirmation, and with power to dismiss at pleasure. The amendment, consistent with this principle, went beyond the offices which are now elective and made the governor's power of unconfirmed appointment complete throughout the whole administration, so far as the constitution was concerned.

The mayor of New York City has similar power over all the department heads. He may appoint and remove without oversight by anybody, and this is considered one of the most modern and progressive features of the charter.

The National Municipal League's model charter conferred this absolute power on the mayor.

This is the present orthodox principle among reformers. The purpose is to clear the lines of responsibility from all entanglements; to make it impossible for an official charged with neglect to say "It wasn't my fault;" to get single-headed government instead of many-headed.

The opposition promptly complains that this is over-concentration of power. The politicians, fearful of the appearance of any machine except their own, argue that the chief executive would use his enlarged patronage to build up a new machine. Of course, we answer that a new machine once in a while by way of variety, might be a good thing and that we would have the boss of the new machine right where we could hit him full and square.

Nevertheless, it is my belief that there is a measure of soundness in the opposition to uncontrolled appointive power and that we must eventually give to the opponents of it a better answer than to say that it is at least better and safer than the confirmation plan.

In no other democratic country do the people subject themselves so to the mercies of individual caprice as we already do. And, as I have shown, reformers are ready to carry it still further. In many of our cities it may fairly be said that the mayor holds half the city power within his personal grasp. Certainly if we take into account his ability to misuse patronage and veto like chessmen, the mayor comes pretty near being a majority in many of our city governments. In this matter we are unique among the nations, and it is curious that a country which appears most afraid of a strong government, and in which the Jeffersonian idea appears dominant, should be the one in which single individuals are entrusted with greater uncontrolled power than anywhere else in Christendom.

An instance of the dangers involved is New York City where the mayor recently had it within his power to upset the subway situation whenever he pleased, and frequently it seemed to the people of the town that he was likely to do so. He expressed opposition to what he called "cornfield routes" for subways and wanted the new tubes built where there was already the greatest number of passengers. If that one man had happened to be impervious to argument, future generations in New York City might have been condemned to live upon an insignificant fraction of the land which lay within a few miles of city hall, with congestion piled on congestion, instead of congestion being relieved by the opening up of new spaces.

Similarly, the mayor of New York was charged with responsibility for an epidemic of crime, by reason of his causing sharp punishment of policemen who ventured to use their clubs. Matters reached a point where a gang of toughs could successfully forbid policemen to pass beyond the corner of a certain carbarn.

After the terrible Asch factory fire in New York, two important bills aiming at fire prevention, came before the mayor for acceptance. One represented the best thought of the public spirited citizens of the town and the most careful draftsmanship. The mayor, without giving anybody a chance to explain, rejected it because he thought his pet enemy, Hearst, had prepared it, and proceeded to sign the inferior measure.

Whether my statements are just to the mayor or not, it is obvious that things fully as serious as this are easily conceivable, and a plan of government which permits the whims or failings of a single man to swing such vast interests, even temporarily, is not thoroughly sound.

The chief ground for complaint against the uncontrolled-executive plan is, however, not its perilous strength, but the fact that the presence of these obvious perils compels us to withhold from our administrators the powers they need. They need not only complete undivided appointive power, but power to use their own discretion, power to make new rules, as they go along, to fit new situations, power to be agents instead of dummies of the law's minutiae.

Our municipal, state and national legislatures now must undertake to control by continuous and detailed legislation a multitude of highly technical matters which ought to be left to empowered administrative experts. The legislatures cannot safely delegate their powers to administrators because they cannot hold the administrators answerable for results and subject to punishment.

The New York city government undertakes to prevent such holocausts as the Asch fire. There is a new fire prevention bureau, placed according to current orthodox theories, under the mayor's single control. The fact that the mayor is independent and uncontrolled makes it impossible to confer the vast necessary powers upon the fire prevention bureau without running the risk that those vast powers may be used improperly under a weak or opinionated executive, in which case there would be no appeal and all hope of reform must be hazarded upon the personality of the next mayor.

Another great and vital feature of local legislation in New York City is the building code. At present the aldermen make it and the mayor approves and administers it. The present method has developed great scandals and the code is chronically out of date and unfair to business and costly to the people. The right method would be to have an appointive administrative building code board, served by an expert bureau and empowered to enact the code and keep it up to date and enforce it. If we attempt this at present we have three unhappy alternatives: (1) To let the mayor have the whole responsibility for the building code board with right to dismiss the members and appoint new ones at pleasure. This overstrains our willingness to depend on the wisdom of one man. (2) To let the mayor appoint, subject to confirmation by the council. This forks the line of responsibility and the principle has proven mischievous in practice. (3) To let the mayor appoint the building code board but give the members long terms in rotation so that no one may or can alter a majority of the board in his term. This puts power beyond prompt popular control, prevents the retrieving of mistakes in appointment, and delays and baffles attempts at improvement as well as attempts at corruption. Thus Governor Wilson has been almost impotent in certain important matters which he was elected to carry through in New Jersey, because certain of his so-called subordinates have protected tenures and silently defy his efforts to install new methods. The people cannot be expected to analyze his excuses and and duly hold him blameless. He has no redress and neither have the people and there is nothing to do but wait for the years to roll round before reform can be effected. Power ought not thus to be delegated beyond control of responsible representatives of the people.

The recall puts a touch of flexibility into the plan of electing independent chief executives. So far as the recall goes, I favor it. But it is at best, clumsy, unwieldy and expensive. The horse needs a hand on the rein. It is not always wise to give him his head and then unhitch him and buy another horse if he turns off the road to nibble the grass.

Upon a state legislature or a city legislature, i.e., a *group* of men who act in group, we willingly confer greater powers than we dare give *one* man, and all these large powers can, without diminution, be boldly and flexibly administered through a *controlled* chief executive.

Such is the new office which has just been created in Sumter, S. C. The new charter of this little city (10,000 population) modifies the commission plan by making the commissioners act as a board, never singly, and perform all executive work through an appointive city manager, who holds office subject to their pleasure. The city manager may be hired from out of town and is simply the expert servant of the commission.

Suppose New York adopted this plan by enlarging its present board of estimate and making it a supreme board of directors with no other elective officers to detract from its authority. That board of directors could hire a chief executive to carry out all its orders in proper co-ordination. There could be under this continuously controlled executive a building code board and a fire prevention board, for instance, to which could be safely sublet all the powers necessary to the proper regulation of buildings and the prevention of conflagrations. Then the public would have the right to disregard all details and simply hold the directors responsible for results.

After the Asch fire nobody suffered politically except George McAnney, the borough president, and he was not responsible at all. But if a building burned and people died in it the public could with perfect justice demand of our proposed board of directors—"What did you let this happen for? You had plenty of power to prevent it!" And the directors, apologizing, would turn privately to their city manager and repeat "What is the reason? Did you appoint real experts or amateurs on that fire prevention board? Didn't you have inspectors enough? Or money enough? What do you need to prevent another fire?" And the manager, fearing lest he lose his job for having thus gotten his superiors into trouble, will tear things loose in the fire board to locate and punish the cause of the inefficiency and see that proper new provisions are made to prevent forever the repetition of any such disaster.

We cannot secure such a condition now because we dare not give to an uncontrolled executive such vast administrative discretion.

The controlled-executive plan filters everything through a group. It reduces the personal equation. Without loss of administrative unity, it abolishes one-man power. A single man may have his ups and downs, his freaks and fancies, his militant points and his passive ones, his natural bents and moods, his pet departments and projects. A board, or commission, or council, or parliament, has none of these things—to a group such excesses are relatively impossible. Even if all the members were cranks, their combined judgment would be reliable—they would neutralize each other.

This plan corresponds to the general manager under the board of directors in a business corporation. It gives the stability of the combined judgment of many men on matters of policy, but leaves execution to a single-headed controlled executive establishment.

The controlled-executive plan goes far beyond the recall of the mayor. Its executive can be bounced out of office in less time that it takes to print the blanks for a recall petition.

There are many other weaknesses of the independent executive plan of government, all of which are corrected by the controlled-executive idea. I will simply name them.

1. The independence of the executive destroys continuity of the administrative policy. One mayor is a crank on finance and taxes, and devotes

his attention to improving those matters, to the neglect of other departments which do not interest him. His successor leaves the financial reforms uncompleted and follows his own hobby of parks and schools.

2. Election of administrators is unsound in principle, for the choice of an administrator is no more a natural popular function than the choice of an engineer or a landscape architect. Administration of modern cities is an expert's job and the best experts are not necessarily good vote-getters.

3. The independent executive constitutes a separate city government and the attempt to compel him to work in harmony with the other "city governments" creates a costly and cumbersome mass of red tape. The council, for instance, in appropriating funds for the mayor to spend, will try to regulate the details of the expenditure, thus perhaps compelling what later in the course of the expenditure may be found to be extravagance or unwise economies or misdirected work.

4. The independence of the executive destroys unity in the government. A city ought to have one government, not several. Pulling and hauling, deadlocks, friction and delays, trading of influence and the need of a boss to hold the ramshackle together and make it progress—all result from two-headed government.

Putting a chief executive under continuous control of a responsible group of men abolishes these evils. A moment's reflection will show that it is the universal plan in corporations and in all associations employing paid servants. It is likewise a standard plan in governments outside of the United States.

In foreign countries the parliament elects and controls the prime minister, who in turn controls the administration. The magistrat of a German city, with general power of appointment over the whole administration, is hired by the council and subject to continuous control by it.

I believe the best way to go about getting this idea into practice is by giving encouragement to the wide spread adoption of the Sumter plan. This plan, if successful in cities, will in time, spread to counties and even to states.

RICHARD S. CHILDS.[1]

WOMEN AND LOCAL GOVERNMENT IN THE UNITED KINGDOM

THE general opinion in the American mind, relative to the English women's position in politics, has been narrowed down to a militant activity conducted on the plan of "might is right." The fact that women in England, Scotland, Ireland and Wales have been giving excellent service in political positions, for an extended period is one with which the average person is not acquainted.

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It is not the intention here to rehearse the history and growth of the "women's movement" in these countries, but to give a brief outline of one, through which women in the United Kingdom are participating in matters of national importance, namely: The Women's Local Government Society, with headquarters at No. 19 Tothill Street, Westminster S. W. The officers, council and executive committee show the strength of the organization, which is headed by Lady Strachey, president; Countess of Aberdeen, Miss Louise Twining, the Rt. Hon. Lord Courtney, Miss Cons, the Lady Frances Balfour, the Rt. Hon. the Earl of Meath and Mrs. Cobden Unwin, vice-presidents; Miss Leigh Browne, honorable secretary, and Lady Lockyer, honorable treasurer.

It had its beginning as a "committee" only, formed in 1888, to secure the return of women to the first London County Council. Contrary to expectation, it survived, through varying fortunes, until January, 1893, when it "was reconstituted on a permanent basis, with the enlarged object of securing the eligibility of women to all local governing bodies."

The threefold object to promote the removal of all remaining legal disabilities of women in respect to local government, to promote the participation of women in local government, both as administrators and as officials, and to promote among women the study of their duties as citizens in respect to local government, would at first glance suggest a suffrage platform. This question, however, does not come within the scope of this society. It is independent of political parties and its aims and work are not to be confounded with those of societies concerned with getting the parliamentary vote for women. It does not seek special privileges for women in local government legislation.

Through the formation of local organizations, meetings, and the publication and distribution of special literature, it educates public opinion and promotes bills in parliament in furtherance of the object of the society. It watches all bills dealing with local government. It assists in any cases which seem to involve a danger of creating a precedent for the imposition of any fresh disability on women in respect to local government.

While the society has official correspondents in each Parliamentary district, the formation of local organizations, on a non-partisan basis, is one of the most valuable mediums through which interest is stimulated and effort developed. In this connection special stress is laid upon the fact that local conditions must govern the promotion of the candidature of individuals. Each locality must support its own candidates. The society does not undertake to do this from the central office. In addition to the branches there are now upwards of thirty organizations affiliated with the society.

The most important activity of this society has been the effort centered upon the local government qualification bill (for England and Wales) to *extend* the qualification for being elected on county and borough councils. By a provision of the local government act, October, 1894, a residential qualification is made alternative with the electoral or voting qualification for the purpose of enabling men and women to sit on boards of guardians, district and parish councils. The effect of this bill was to greatly increase the number of women guardians, a large percentage of whom were married.

In 1907 an act was passed to enable women to be elected and to serve on county and borough councils in England and Wales (known as the qualification of women act). It provides that "a woman shall not be disqualified by sex or marriage for being elected to or being a councillor or alderman of the council of any county or borough (including a metropolitan borough)." The operation of this act is restricted by the qualifications which by other statutes are required of all candidates for election to the above-mentioned councils in England and Wales. A resident within a borough or county who is "enrolled and entitled to be enrolled" on the burgess roll or the local government register is qualified for election to a borough or county council.

It is only as an occupier that a woman, either owner or tenant, can claim to be placed on the register as an elector. Every person is an occupier who occupies a dwelling house, or part of a house as a separate dwelling (even only one room) *provided the landlord does not, as landlord, reside in the house:* irrespective of the amount of rent. The same term applies to every person who occupies land, or business premises of the clear yearly value of not less than £10 or possessed of property of an amount in accordance with the local requirements for a councillor and who resides within the county or within fifteen miles of its boundary, or, in case of the municipal borough, within seven miles.

From this it follows that a woman, single or a widow, who is enrolled under these qualifications is entitled to be a candidate for election to a county or borough council.

Two or three persons sharing the same dwelling, or the same land or business premises may claim as joint occupiers, provided the tenancy is joint and that the clear yearly value, when divided, amounts to £10 for each person claiming.

Husband and wife cannot claim as joint occupiers but, by the local government law of 1894, they may both be registered *provided they are not qualified in respect of the same property.* Such registration will entitle married women to vote in the election of district councils (rural and urban), parish councils, boards of guardians, and since 1900 for the London County Council, but not for town councils nor provincial county councils.

Married women are barred from sitting on town or provincial county councils because they lack the qualification of the right to vote for such councils.

No woman owner has any right, by virtue of her ownership, to vote in any local election. No woman lodger can vote in any local election. For women there is no service franchise, namely, no occupation of a dwelling as an official or servant (for example, as matron or caretaker) entitles a woman to be placed on the register. For neither men nor women is there any ownership franchise, lodger franchise or service franchise for town council elections or for county council elections outside of London.

In the metropolitan borough councils, it is a sufficient qualification to be a parochial elector, and by the local government act married women can be parochial electors under the same provision that applies to registration. Women owners, women lodgers, and women who but for their sex might be "service voters" cannot be parochial electors. For eligibility to metropolitan borough councils there is, however, an alternative qualification, which is absolutely equal as between men and women, viz., residence within the electoral area for the twelve months previous to the election. For the county of London a special act was passed in 1900, which assimilated the county council and metropolitan borough council franchise by enabling parochial electors to vote in the election of London county council in the same manner as county electors. This permits of the eligibility not only of single women and widows, but of married women who have an occupation qualification *separate* from that of their husbands.

In Scotland franchise or voting qualifications, defined generally, include: Household franchise, occupant (as owner or tenant) of a house, regardless of value.

Service franchise, servant occupying dwelling house in virtue of service; ownership franchise, owner of rentable property (i.e., house land or tenement) of a certain annual value; occupancy franchise, occupant (i.e., tenant) of any land or tenement of a certain annual value; lodger franchise, lodger whose lodging in an unfurnished condition is of a certain annual value.

The Scotch local government act, 1894, which provides for the registration of qualified married women in the county and municipal registers, and the Scotch qualification of women act, 1907, enables all duly qualified women to become members of local bodies. For all local government elections there is a single register for men and women on the same terms. The women who can be chosen as town councillors and county councillors must be householders, owners, tenants or occupants of property worth £10 annually, all their local rates must be paid, and their names must appear on the voters' roll. Marriage is no disability, provided that both husband and wife are *not* qualified in respect of the same property.

It remains but to secure the.passage of a bill that will provide a residential qualification that shall be alternative with the electoral qualifications for candidates for county, town and parish councils in Scotland.

The Irish local authorities (qualification of women) bill, enacted December 16, 1911, has removed the women's disabilities in local government and enables them to be elected and act as members of county and borough councils in Ireland. It extends to Ireland the enabling provisions of the qualification of women's acts passed in 1907 for England, Wales and Scotland.

The disability of marriage is not an established disability, nor everywhere prevalent, even in England and Wales. There is a division of opinion on this subject and the question has not been authoritatively settled. Some revising barristers hold that by necessary implication, the act of 1907 did enable married women to be elected to those councils. The Birmingham court ruled in favor of this interpretation and a married woman was elected in November, 1911, to the Birmingham city council. With this exception, and a possible one or two others, all the women serving on councils and boards are unmarried and widows.

In March, 1912, the Women's Local Government Society reported that in England and Wales, there were 3 women serving on county councils, 17 on town councils (2 of whom are mayors), 8 on urban district councils, 145 on rural district councils, and 1175 women who have been directly elected or "co-opted" as poor law guardians, in addition to the 145 women rural district councillors who act as guardians for the unions in which their districts lie. The number of parish councillors has not been definitely ascertained. In Scotland there are 2 women serving on town councils and 44 on parish councils.

In Ireland there are 3 women serving as town councillors, 4 as urban district councillors, 44 as rural district councillors, together with 66 who have been directly elected or co-opted, making a total of 110 women guardians.

Each year, since 1907, attempts have been made to widen the range of the qualification act, and remove the existing irregularities, by the introduction of a bill that would provide a residential qualification for candidates (men and women) for county and town councils, to be alternative with the established electoral qualification.

The second object of the society, to promote the participation of women in local government, is regarded as of no less importance, owing to the valuable opportunities for local work in the promotion of the public health through the administration of the national insurance act, a measure for national health insurance and for unemployment insurance. Several provisions which follow give some idea of its scope:

An insurance committee shall make such reports on the health of insured persons within the county or county borough for which it is formed, as the insurance commissioner, after consultation with the local government board, may prescribe, and shall furnish to them such statistical and other returns as they may require.

An insurance committee may make to the commissioners such other reports as it may think fit on the health of such persons and the conditions affecting the same, and may also make suggestions with regard thereto: and the insurance commissioners shall forward such reports, returns and suggestions to the councils of the counties, boroughs and urban and rural districts which appear to them to be affected by or interested in the matter.

An insurance committee shall also make such provision for the giving of lectures and the publication of information on questions relating to health as it thinks necessary or desirable, and may, if it thinks fit, for that purpose make arrangements with local education authorities, universities and other institutions.

In the case of "excessive sickness" among insured persons, an insurance committee, and even an "approved society," is empowered to claim repayment from the party deemed by it to be in default, if, in its opinion, such excess is due to bad housing or to unsanitary conditions, to an insufficient or contaminated water supply, to neglect on the part of any person or authority to enforce the provisions of any act relating to public health or the housing of the working classes, or to neglect to observe or enforce any public health precautions.

There are two offices for health purposes open to women: health visitors and sanitary inspectors. Most of the "health visiting" in London is done by women who are qualified as sanitary inspectors. That this service be even more satisfactorily performed, the society deemed it advisable that the health visitor should have the training of the sanitary inspector, to be enabled to detect unsanitary conditions as the office carried with it no authority to do more than report a case that might be a matter of life or death, due largely, if not wholly, to surrounding conditions. The supplemental qualifications for "suitable nursing" added to the requirements for a sanitary inspector, would combine the office and powers, save time, and a duplication of visits.

The utter disregard of this matter, the slender minimum of preparation for the duties and the indeterminate qualifications of the health visitors, as contained in a bill introduced in 1911, brought a realization of the opportunity to jeopardize the high standard of work hitherto maintained. The society and many of its associates worked very diligently against this bill and succeeded in having it withdrawn.

The unsatisfactory provisions for visitation and supervision of children, by the poor guardians, as contained in the boarding-out act, was made the subject of some organized effort which eventually had its sequel in a new order issued by the president of the local government board in December, 1911. It contained materially all the suggestions presented by the Woman's Local Government Society, relating especially to the coöperation of the women as inspectors and members of the boarding-out committee.

There are a number of matters of more or less executive and active character that keep a large force of women engaged in the work of this organization. The elections and appointments may be mentioned as of paramount importance, especially considering the responsibility of selecting qualified candidates who are willing to serve.

The number of meetings and speakers alone suggest considerable time and thought on the part of officers and laymen. The printing and distribution of at least nine different kinds of pamphlets, leaflets and reports, bespeaks an active committee on publications.

There is a strong sociological current in the efforts of this society that underlies the motive to gain control in such offices as that of county and town councils.

It is no new thing that politics must be the medium through which men and women coöperate on commonsense, broad-minded lines in public matters that find their origin in the fabric of the home. The omnipresent questions that come up in everyday life, such as sanitation, housing, food inspection, public baths and libraries, recreation grounds, factories, workshops and employment, together with child welfare from the cradle to the factory, form the program of practically every councilmanic body in the civilized world. The Women's Local Government Society emphasizes the importance of having women share in this work if they would have it well done.

Poor guardians by any other name have the same difficulties to surmount in the care and administration of the affairs of children that are boarded-out in private homes. The very nature of the work which affects the life, health and morals of these children makes it worth while to secure seats upon the boards of control.

The association with other organizations in large meetings, as for instance the Council of the National Union of Women Workers of Great Britain and Ireland, the Work Conference on Prevention of Destitution, the meetings of the National Association for Women's Lodging Houses contribute to its influence and round out the efforts of the Society, which comprehends the United Kingdom for its field of labor.

H. MARIE DERMITT.[1]

Pittsburgh, Pa.

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[1] Secretary of the Civic Club of Allegheny County.

THE NEW YORK SCHOOL INQUIRY

A VIOLENT controversy has broken out in New York over the investigation of New York schools authorized by the board of estimate and apportionment. Concerning the scope of this inquiry and controversy Charles P. Howland, president of the Public Education Association of New York has made the following statement:

> The school inquiry committee of the board of estimate, in its comments accompanying the Moore report, and subsequently, evidently has the feeling that Professor Hanus, who was engaged to make the inquiry, and the associates selected and employed by him were to do no more than obtain data or statistics on so-called "facts," which they should report to the board—in other words, that they individually occupied a position similar to that of the commissioner of accounts, who may from time to time be directed to investigate a department.
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> This view of the functions of such experts and of such an inquiry appears to be at the bottom of the whole controversy over the Moore report, and it seems to us to be based on a misconception of the fundamental value of such an inquiry.
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> When the school systems of Brooklyn, New York, Staten Island, etc., were combined by the greater New York consolidation, no fundamental reorganization of the system took place, or adjustment to the needs of the larger city. The city has continued to grow, and the pressure of day to day needs has prevented any investigation into its fundamental advantages and defects, or the creation of any sound basic policy.
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> Dr. Maxwell has asserted that many of his measures were adopted with a view toward such a policy, and his numerous critics have attacked his measures and himself also as producing exactly a contrary effect. It is unnecessary here to detail the charges against the structure of the system or his administration of it; it is well enough known to the public that fierce controversies have been going on for years.
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> The board of estimate, therefore, decided to institute an investigation into the entire school system. The project was hailed by the public with the utmost enthusiasm. Though the plan was proposed and put in motion by the body which is in charge solely of the financial needs of the school system, nevertheless, the existing conditions demanded an inquiry on much broader lines not limited to financial or political aspects, but as comprehensive as the system itself.
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> The public—and we think legitimately—expected this, and the engagement of one of the foremost educators in the country, Professor Paul Hanus, of Harvard, from beginning to end, conceived that to be his function, and the public and the press during the conduct of the inquiry have always understood this as its nature.
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> An insistence by the school committee of the board of estimate upon the opposite and technical view will leave the public demand for an inquiry into the value of its school system, educationally considered, entirely unsatisfied, will reject the most valuable parts of the entire Hanus report, to wit, his educational conclusions, and would also frustrate one of the most important parts of the inquiry, the proper relation of the board of estimate to the board of education considered from the educational point of view.

Now, at some stage of the preparation of Dr. Hanus's report, and while the sections prepared by his various associates are being gone over in galley proof by the committee of the board of estimate, as well as by the educators, there suddenly appears in the newspapers "publicity matter" condemning the Moore report as valueless, presenting an effort at evidence in that direction, together with excerpts from some of the correspondence and other statements derogatory to Professor Moore for his personal conduct in the whole matter. This "publicity matter" was accompanied by a printed pamphlet containing some twenty thousand words, widely circulated.

As the Moore report was not published in any form available to the public, this procedure naturally produced a complete mystification as to its contents and their value, and its purpose could have been defensive only.

If the Moore report contained valuable matter in which the public might take an intelligent interest, this treatment of the report was to offer the public less than a shadow of its demand.

If the public view of the inquiry as something transcending departmental investigation was the sound one, why not give it that which it had a right to expect and let it judge of the value of the result achieved?

If, on the other hand, this was only a departmental investigation conducted by the board of estimate, why did not that body quietly reject the report, instead of taking the public so extensively into its confidence by a comprehensive attack on Professor Moore and his work?

We have no brief for Professor Moore or for his report; doubtless two views of it may be entertained, and doubtless also these views will differ according to one's study and experience with the problem of city school administration.

Some presumption should be accorded to the soundness of method and accuracy of result of Professor Moore's work, at least to the extent of giving it a dispassionate consideration. What treatment of this kind it may have received during the period in which it was under discussion between the committee or any agency the committee may have seen fit to employ and Professor Hanus and Professor Moore we cannot completely say, but it is our opinion that an approach to Professor Moore, based on the 223 qestions which were addressed to him in one communication, was not calculated to achieve a constructive result. From the point of view of the educational expert these questions were not intended to elicit "facts," but were in the nature of hostile cross-examination, badgering in tone, and sometimes offensive in their implications.

The public cares nothing for the right or wrong on the personal side of the controversy over the Moore report, and that is now regrettable history. But it does very much care for an authoritative appraisal of a school system by the persons who, gathered from the most important educational centres of the country, have been a full twelvemonth minutely scrutinizing the system, and it does not wish to see the results of that scrutiny wasted by conflicts between individuals or official bodies.

We believe the public properly takes the view—as Dr. Hanus and his associates most certainly do—that the Hanus report is to be taken as a unit, and attains its full value only when regarded in that way; that the rejection of any part of it dismembers it, throws the remaining parts out of proportion and leaves an important field of inquiry untouched. This view is reasonable in itself, but it may be noticed that this sort of inquiry (though never so extensive) has been conducted before, notable in the school systems of England, and that Sir Michael E. Sadler's reports upon his investigations are in the nature of essays, illuminating technical and abstruse facts to the interested lay public and reaching to the fundamental philosophy of city school systems.

It is to be noted further that Sadler's reports—favorable or unfavorable—were printed by the various municipalities in full as Sadler wrote them.

There can be no doubt that the committee of the board of estimate sees the hiatus and recognizes that it must be filled, and for that reason has now selected Professor Goodnow and Dr. Howe, as the committee says, "to make the study assigned to Professor Moore." These gentlemen are, as the committee states, "both competent authorities on questions of municipal administration and educators of experience," but this must be in the sense that they have long been employed in the business of education, for it has never been part of the educational activity of either, so far as we are aware, to make a study of the subject of city school administration; neither one has ever affected to be an authority on education or educational administration, nor has either one ever written on the subject.

That has been Professor Moore's lifelong study, his branch of education which is assigned to him at Yale University, and was the particular reason for his selection for this one subject by Dr. Hanus, who insisted that he of all men in the country was most competent for the study of that subject. Doubtless, Professor Goodnow and Dr. Howe will do an interesting piece of work and give us a valuable study from the governmental and political point of view, and this will be a valuable supplement to the work of Dr. Hanus and of his associates, but a study from that point of view cannot fill the hiatus left by the rejection of Professor Moore's report.

John Purroy Mitchel, chairman of the committee on school inquiry of the board of estimate, gave the following as the reasons for the rejection by the board of the report:

The report contains allegations and general conclusions unsupported by any facts cited or evidence submitted, many of which to the knowledge of the members of the committee and as established by public records are absurd and false.

Certain of these statements, if true, reflect seriously upon the discharge of their functions by the members of the board of education and other responsible officials.

The committee addressed two requests[1] to Professor Moore for such facts and evidence as he might have in support of the above allegations and conclusions, and requested a statement of the sources from which such facts and evidence, if any there were, had been drawn.

Professor Moore evasively declined to submit to the committee either his facts or the sources from which those facts were derived, or a statement of the offices in which his investigation had been conducted.

The Independent (New York) asked Professor Moore to present his side of the case. This he did and the following excerpts, made with the permission of Hamilton Holt, the editor, give the gist of his side at the present stage of the controversy. Prof. E. C. Moore received his A.M. from Columbia in 1896 and his Ph.D. from the University of Chicago in 1898. He has worked in the University Settlement, New York, and Hull House, Chicago, and in other philanthropic organizations. He was called two years ago from the superintendency of the schools of Los Angeles to the chair of education at Yale.

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[1] See article of Dr. W. H. Allen, p. 93.

After describing his interviews with Dr. W. H. Allen of the Bureau of Municipal Research (whose article follows) and the reasons for not undertaking the assignment directly Prof. Moore says:[2]

> Professor Hanus was finally appointed as educational expert in charge of the investigation. His experience in that position he will himself narrate when he chooses to do so. Suffice it for me to say that I am firmly convinced that there is no other man in the United States in educational work who could have triumphed finally over so many obstacles which were put in his way as he has done. The school report has been made in spite of them and it is a work the like of which has never before been accomplished anywhere in the world. It is altogether the most thoro survey of the activities of a working school system which has yet been made . Its immediate practical value to New York City cannot be overestimated, while its usefulness to the whole world, both now and to succeeding years, is beyond calculation.
>
> After defining the plan of his inquiry and successfully fighting off certain influences which sought to wrest the control and direction of it from his hands, Professor Hanus sent up a cry for help to which I had to respond. The detail to which he assigned me was the work of the board of education. The text of his request read:
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> > The work which I should like to assign to you is an investigation into the organization, methods and records of the board of education or so much of this work as it is possible for you to do. What I am particularly anxious to ascertain is whether the conception of its functions which the board of education has is clearly defined; whether that conception is justified and whether the organization and methods of the board tend toward efficiency. Naturally whatever recommendations as to the function, organization and methods we might make should be based on some such inquiry as I have indicated.
>
> At last I had definite written instructions, and I have carried them out to the letter. As Professor Hanus was the educational expert in charge of the inquiry, I not only got my instructions from him, but consulted with him from time to time, and at the end submitted my report to him, and after he had examined it and I had replied to a series of questions which he asked concerning particular passages in it, he accepted it. We also worked over the first galley proof together. The second galley and the page proof are yet to be gone over, and errors which further proofreading should correct certainly exist in the copy. Since he has examined, approved and accepted the report on behalf of the committee and his is the only examination of it which is authoritative, I feel no obligation to any one else in the matter and I am the more convinced of the justice of

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[2] *The Independent*, November 14, 1912.

this position when I remember that it is a well established principle of the common law that one cannot at one and the same time be the defendant, the judge and the jury in a case at law. This is the unhappy position in which the board of estimate's committee finds itself in condemning my report. For one who is commissioned to report upon schools and their work is in every case called upon to examine into the relation of those who employ him to the schools. If he finds them scrupulously correct and careful in all these relations, well and good. He commends them for this and his report is accepted and printed. But if he finds them remiss in their duty and failing to meet either the requirements of the law or the plain necessities of the schools, even tho they are his employers and will bury him under reproach and condemnation, yet his obligation to the truth is greater than his obligation to any man, and the truth as he finds it and nothing but the truth must be his guide.

I spent more than forty days in New York City, most of that time in the offices of the board of education. Every facility was accorded me there. Copies of the printed minutes and reports of the board of education were loaned to me. I took them home and worked at the subject night and day. I read and analyzed some 4000 pages of the finely printed minutes of the board and its committees. Every explanation that I asked for was made, and all the documents and letters which I requested were brought to me. Methods of research differ according to the subject under investigation. My instructions were to investigate the methods, organization and records of the board of education in order to determine whether its conception of its function was clearly defined, whether that conception is justified, and whether the organization and methods of the board tend toward efficiency; in short, to discover and outline the present plan of school administration. I was not directed to make an audit of the books and accounts of the board nor to discover and write the natural history of its actions or those of its committees thru a period of months, or how successful its various enterprises are in their detailed workings, nor how the board of estimate conducts the details of its business, but simply how the results of its action affect the schools. Instead, I was instructed to examine the sufficiency of the plan by which the public educational interests of New York City are administered and are carried forward.

* * * *

The school is one of the four great institutions of civilization—government, the home and the church are the others. At first education was a home affair, next it was an ecclesiastical affair, and next it was subordinated to government. But the time has come when it is making itself free, and free it must be, in the same sense that the church is free under the state and the home is free under the state, and the school is related to but not dominated by the home and related to but not dominated by the church. Freedom of thought and freedom in teaching it has already achieved. The freedom to determine its own requirements of money under general laws and freedom to direct and control its own expenditures according to the necessities of instruction and to make accounting of them to the state, and not the dictates of local governmental authorities, it must have, and in a number of the leading cities of the nation it has already secured this freedom. This is a rapidly accumulating tendency of our age. What is necessary for the welfare of education in Philadelphia, Boston and Pittsburgh, Denver, Indianapolis and Milwaukee is necessary for education in New York City.

I have found it necessary to criticise the board of education, but chiefly because it has not resisted the encroachments upon its legal right to manage and control the school affairs of the city; and yet I remember that after three years of fighting for freedom from city hall domination which was contrary to the education law, it was whispered to the department for the direction of whose schools I was then responsible that unless the board of education ceased to resist the city council it would not get a cent from the city for the schools next year. Fortunately, other sources of revenue had been provided by the legislature without the knowledge of the whisperer and the danger from city hall domination was a thing of the past.

The power of the purse is a very real power. It must be strictly guarded and restrained. As all teachers must teach the children of the nation to obey the laws, it is particularly imperative that there should be no departure from or suspension of the laws of the state which guide and direct its school system.

NEW YORK'S REJECTION OF SCHOOL REPORTS "FOR WANT OF FACTS" OVER INQUIRY CONTROVERSY

DID you ever try to make constructive use of experts' statements which other experts called "poppycock," "untruthful," "false," "glittering generalities," "unfair," "unfounded"? That is the situation with regard to the second of the "educational aspect" reports from the New York school inquiry.

Though the situation has led to personal wrangling it was quite unexpected in connection with the New York inquiry. From time immemorial we have discussed questions on the "you did" and "you didn't" basis where one expert declared "you're guessing" and the other answered "you're another." Mercury and quicksand furnish poor analogies for the basis of discussion of educational matters whether in New York or in other parts of the country. Because statements were seldom proved and because school needs and school results were held to require Sherlock Holmes or other legerdemain qualities, New York's board of estimate and apportionment was applauded in 1910 for starting a school inquiry *to get a fact basis for discussing school needs.*

In urging that "a committee be appointed from the teachers' association to gather (for the school inquiry) and collate evidence on the needs of such reforms in the administration of the schools and in the course of study as will give better results . . . . ," the New York *Times* on November 18, 1910, quoted the president of the teachers' association as saying that teachers heretofore had been an "easy prey of pedagogical exploiters, educational slummers, the mere statisticians and experimenters, and all the other exponents of hollow assumption and scholastic dilettantism, who are clever enough and ready enough to exploit the energy, time and patience of the teacher for every new, costly and useless fad."

Until lately it was never publicly suggested by anybody that there was any earthly purpose of the school inquiry but to get facts, to base upon facts constructive suggestions, thus giving the community a fact basis for discussing school problems and directing school work.

The resolution passed October 26 was introduced by Comptroller William A. Prendergast. The third and fourth sections of the preamble read:

> *Whereas*, in formulating the allowance for the purpose of the department of education this board has been unable to secure *sufficient and satisfactory information in explanation of requests for appropriations* made by such department to *enable it to reach proper conclusions* with respect to the necessity and propriety of such requests, and
>
> *Whereas*, it is the sense of this board that efficient and progressive administration of the schools of the city of New York is indispensable to the welfare and progress of the city, and that generous appropriations for the purposes of the department of education are desirable in so far as assurance and evidence can be given that such appropriations will be expended for purposes and in a *manner to promote the efficiency and welfare of the schools, and to increase the value and effectiveness of the instruction given therein.*

The resolution read:

> That the chairman of this board appoint a *committee of three of its members to conduct an inquiry* into the organization, equipment and methods, both financial and educational, of the department of education, including such plans and proposals as may have been formulated or may be under consideration by the board of education for extending and developing its educational activities, and that for this purpose the committee be authorized to *associate with it such experts* within and without the government of the city of New York *as may assist it in the conduct of this inquiry* and in the formulation of recommendations to this board, and that it be further authorized *to employ such assistants as it may find necessary* for the purposes of this inquiry.

The whole country joined with it in saying: "After years of futile controversy—of blindman's buff in which the public wore the blind and experts did the buffing—we are going to find rock bottom in discussing fundamental school questions."

Two general divisions of the inquiry were outlined by the school inquiry committee: (1) "Business aspects" which President Mitchel directly supervised and (2) "Educational aspects" of which Prof. Paul H. Hanus of Harvard was asked to take charge. In the former grouping were studies of handling supplies, accounting methods, engineering questions, miscellaneous complaints, handling of correspondence in offices of superintendents, etc. With these aspects Professor Hanus had no more to do than the sultan of Turkey. Several of the reports have been published and action has been taken upon them. They were all specific in character like that of Mr. Averill on the numbers of letters handled, the numbers of recommendations analyzed, the dates, places found, percentages, direct quotations given, etc. Nobody called this report or Engineer Armstrong's report on buildings or Accountant Stewart's report on supplies poppycock, untruthful, unfair. Nobody could, because no comment was relevant which was not as specific as the reports themselves.

On the educational aspects only two reports have thus far been published. The first was begun and finished after Professor Hanus left the city's employ, July 1, 1912, and conducted directly under the committee on school inquiry—Mr. Bachman's report on method of computing the number of over-age children in New York's schools. With this report Professor Hanus had absolutely nothing to do. It was printed early in the hope of influencing the current school year's work. It was specific, giving the numbers of children counted, the different ways of counting over-age, the particular districts and schools concerned. No statement was made in it that was not supported specifically by material in the report itself, which showed that New York City was not making administrative use of its over-age figures, that it did not attempt to count some 70,000 children who drop out of school before the last day when the count is taken, that it does not count children in classes for over-age pupils, that the count is taken on the least typical and least useful day of the year. No one could call it poppycock. No one could try to sweep it away by references to inaccuracies or unsupported statements. True, it was answered and in a way which foreshadowed the danger to New York and to every other city that educators have not entirely abandoned the blind man's buff method of dealing with the public when school methods are criticised. Because what was done here may be done in your city, it is well to remember the following steps:

1. The city superintendent said "sufficient answer was given" by the statement of Superintendent Greenwood in the *Educational Review* for May, 1912, which recommended the New York method of reporting over-age, etc. (The Bureau of Municipal Research pointed out that five lines above the portion quoted by the city superintendent Dr. Greenwood had declared that for years he had considered the New York method misleading.)

2. Two associate superintendents and a high school principal were quoted in belittlement of the investigator who was an outsider, came only from a small town, was not even superintendent there, had had little experience as supervisor, etc. (The public was then reminded that his facts were the test of his report and not his pedigree.)

3. A formal answer prepared for the board by the city superintendent was of a character which would shock a business house for its irrelevance, inadequateness, evasion and its reiterated extenuation of an old unfounded claim that in 1904 New York had invented over-age reports and had nothing, therefore, with which to compare its methods.

4. The one agency whose special problem is citizen coöperation with public schools poured kerosene on the fire of misunderstanding by lamenting personal attacks although Mr. Bachman had strictly confined his report to a discussion of methods.

The second report on the strictly educational side, under Professor Hanus' supervision, to reach public attention, created a tempest. It was by Prof. E. C. Moore of Yale on "Organization and Methods of the Board of Education and the Functions of Local Boards." The incident will be discussed for years. Its significance it would be hard to over-estimate. If school inquiry means essays and opinions by experts, unsupported by facts, then the New York board of estimate and apportionment has made a sad mistake. If, on the other hand, the school inquiry is a means of producing evidence, the action of the board of estimate will go into history as one of the greatest services yet rendered to the cause of education. It means putting a premium on a new kind of man and a new kind of thinking; it means taking the mystery away from schools and putting them where they belong in the category of human effort which can be scientifically studied; it means establishing the maxim—*if we test the testable in education, the untestable will fade away into insignificance.* School inquiries that give new proofs will help communities settle problems and will be instituted by all communities. School inquiries that give unsupported opinions will settle nothing and will only discredit the idea of school investigation.

The board of education says several important parts of the Moore report are contrary to fact. Professor Moore says it is true. The board of estimate says that when doctors disagree the public cannot use their diagnosis until it has the facts.

Typical of statements said to be "unsupported" are: A no-man power is directing the schools and is preventing the proper conduct of the educational activities of the city; the board of education has not played a strong part in educational legislation affecting its own work; the board ties the hands of its administrative staff so that it cannot discharge its functions; the school system of New York is an inbreeding system; it keeps out the best teachers from other places; the many headed system is thoroughly incompetent to administer the schools; the board has not upheld the educational law; the present method of administering the schools can hardly be improved upon as a means of defeating the purpose for which the schools exist.

President Mitchell and his colleagues of the committee on school inquiry emphasized this fact as follows in their recommendation to reject the Moore report:

> It should be clearly understood that at no time did the committee request any one of the specialists to change any conclusion or recommendation contained in his report. Facts, where lacking, were requested. These of course, the city is entitled to as the specialists were employed primarily to collect facts.
>
> In a great administrative and constructive inquiry such as that which the board has inaugurated and conducted under the direction of your committee, nothing could be more harmful than the acceptance of an inaccurate or unfounded report. Fairness to all concerned and complete candor are the prime essentials of such an investigation. Nothing could hurt the constructive work of this board more grievously, or could militate more strongly against the constructive results of similar inquiries through the country than for this board to permit one of those in its employ to render to it a false and unfounded report without stigmatizing it as such.

As long ago as July (1912) the school inquiry committee of the New York board of estimate and apportionment, through its chairman, John Purroy Mitchel, wrote to Professor Moore: "I have read a summary of your report . . . . I do not know how exhaustive the investigation was upon which your report is based. In order that I may understand its scope, will you kindly give me information on the following points?" Then followed eighteen questions of which the following are numbers 6, 12 and 14:

> Did you consult with any member of the budget committee of the board of estimate and apportionment concerning the making of the budget of the city of New York, and particularly concerning the budget of the board of education? If so, with whom and to what extent?
>
> Did you consult the correspondence between the different members of the budget committee of the board of estimate and apportionment and the president and other members of the board of education dealing with the budget estimates of the board of education?
>
> Did you read the minutes of the hearing held by the committee on school inquiry on methods and organization of the office of the city superintendent and associate superintendents?

Two days later Mr. Moore asked to have his full report read. President Mitchel replied at once: "Your report is still in the printer's hands, and the time of its return is uncertain. I was given to understand that you propose to sail for Europe within a short time. For that reason I prefer not to wait for the return of the original report." Mr. Moore replied: "As the proof of my report is now in your hands, I would again respectfully request that you examine it as to the scope and method . . . ."

For the next step President Mitchel read the report in detail and on August 19 sent to Professor Moore 223 questions asking for facts to support conclusions and recommendations in the report. The introductory paragraph to this letter closed: "For the purposes of the committee and the city, your report is wholly valueless as it now lies. It will not be published unless the additional information requested by the committee is furnished and that promptly." After the letter was ready this concluding paragraph was added: "Professor Hanus has just written me stating that you are sailing for Europe. I had anticipated that this course might be taken, and for that reason, emphasized in my last letter the necessity for the information asked. The fact that you ignored my reference to your coming departure strikes the committee as not wholly ingenuous. When you were employed by the committee, it was with the expectation that the committee and the city, as well as the board of education, would receive from you an accurate statement of facts."

To Professor Hanus, director in charge of educational aspects President Mitchel wrote on the same date: "Dr. Moore's report as it now stands is so weakened by misstatement and misrepresentations of fact as to render it valueless to the committee and to the city. You ask what would be the effect of a refusal by my committee to accept Moore's report. I think the chief effect would be to save Dr. Moore from conviction for inaccuracy, carelessness and reckless conclusions as an investigator, and for lack of candor and fair dealing with his employer, the city of New York . . . . I hardly believe that you and your colleagues will wish to weaken the excellent effect of your other reports, and to destroy such constructive suggestions in Dr. Moore's report as are valuable, by publishing his report with its garbled facts in its present form. Unless Dr. Moore can and does furnish facts to support his statements, or amends those statements to conform with the truth, the committee will be constrained to point out the misinformation contained in his report as well as his conduct in the premises."

Professor Moore's report was not amended by producing the facts to support his charges, allegations and recommendations. It was rejected by the board of estimate, as he and Professor Hanus were told it would be. Rejection means that it was not accepted, i.e., will not be presented as part of the school inquiry report, and the questions treated in this rejected report have been reassigned to Prof. Frank J. Goodnow and Frederick C. Howe, known to the readers of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW for their work in connection with public administration.

In answer to the false issue which has been raised, that New York's board of estimate has suppressed part of the school inquiry, the facts show that the newspapers were not only given access to the galley proof of the Moore report but were invited to use it if they wanted to assume responsibility for it. The board of estimate, while publishing it as a matter of course, as part of the minutes of the meeting which rejected it, simply refused to give New York City's official stamp to a report which the fiscal authorities maintained would manufacture misunderstanding whereas Professor Moore was engaged to remove misunderstanding by producing facts.

The satisfactoriness of the above summary depends, as I realize, primarily upon the character of the questions which were asked Professor Moore, which he failed to answer and of which he publicly said that they were "characterized by a degree of incoherence and confusion of thought approximating irrationality."

No. 6. Please support with facts the statement that the schools have been almost completely annexed to the city hall.

No. 72. Will you give illustrations of "recommendations and suggestions which its own experts have made for the improvement of its work" and which it has not "sufficiently considered"?

No. 100. Can you give illustrations to support the implication that the city superintendent is prevented by his associates "from exercising more than the nominal functions of his office"?

No. 196. Have you visited the repair shops in Brooklyn? Will you include a reference to the economies effected by repairing instead of throwing away desks, etc.

No. 223. Did you confer with the borough presidents who appoint local board members or with the secretaries who represent them?

Fortunately, whether these questions are irrelevant, confusing and irational every reader may judge for himself. Fortunately, too, New York City and educators throughout the country, especially in the public schools, agree with the concluding paragraph of the editorial in *The Sun* of November 17: "A small bundle of facts will be more useful in rebuilding the educational plant than a carload of excellent suggestions the necessity for adopting which is not made plain by the exhibition of horrible examples."

The discussion of the Moore report has served to draw clearly the line between fact and fancy. In discussing future reports every New Yorker at least will ask "Is this a personal opinion or a school fact?"

William H. Allen.[1]

THE NEW YORK CAB SITUATION

THE New York cab service has been for so many generations a blot upon the fair name of the city that it is now regarded as almost incurable. Unlike the inhabitants of the old world where cabs are universally cheap, plentiful, and well regulated, Americans regard their use as exclusively the privilege of the rich. The average New Yorker seldom enters a taxicab, and when it becomes necessary for him to employ this means of conveyance, he never does so without a careful examination of the state of his personal finances. Added to the financial embarrassment involved is also the fear that possibly the chauffeur of the taxi he hires has but lately returned from an involuntary sojourn at the expense of the state, and is only waiting a favorable opportunity of extracting not only the fare, but also whatever additional cash and valuables the unfortunate passenger may have left upon his person.

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[1] Director, Bureau of Municipal Research of New York City.

To understand the reasons for the lack of regulation and for the excessive rates it is necessary to comprehend fully the present situation.

High rates in New York are due, first to certain economic causes, incident to the business in that city, and second, to the restrictions placed on the business by outgrown ordinances.

The principal economic cause that makes New York cabs so expensive is the traffic condition that exists in the island of Manhattan, the chief field of the business. All lines of travel run north and south, and all the traffic goes in one direction at one part of the day, and in the opposite direction at another hour.

For example, if a broker living in the vicinity of Murray Hill takes a cab downtown to the Stock Exchange in the morning, the cab is not liable to get a return fare away from that neighborhood till three in the afternoon, or later, when the tide of travel sets north. It therefore must either remain idle practically all day downtown, or return at once empty to the center of the city. Either course is uneconomical from an operating point of view. At night a similar situation is presented. A cab will pick up a fare along the "Great White Way" as the theatres and restaurants discharge their homeward bound crowds, and will carry him to his home, probably on the upper east or west sides of Central Park. At twelve or one o'clock at night no one desires to go downtown from those neighborhoods, and the cab must again return empty, very likely reaching the theatrical district at such a late hour that no further business is possible.

Such a traffic situation obliges the cab owner to charge sufficient to pay for both the outward and return journey of the cab, and is the main reason our cabs are so outrageously expensive. For it there is no cure except a redistribution of the business and residence centers on Manhattan Island, a cure obviously out of the question.

The New York cab owner is under a greater expense for repairs than his Paris or London brother, due to the bad condition of the city streets, which are often in atrocious repair, and in winter are lumped with snow.

To these handicaps must also be added the greater initial cost of the American vehicle, due to the difference in price between this country and Europe, and also the higher cost of operation due to dearer materials, and higher wages paid labor in America.

While these economic causes are sufficient to explain a somewhat higher cost of operation, and therefore a higher rate of fare in New York as compared with London, for example, they are not sufficient to explain the enormous difference that actually exists. This will at once be seen to be true when we come to examine the New York ordinances. Nor can we find in any economic cause an excuse for the total lack of regulation by the New York City authorities of either the character of the cab, or the character of the driver. Only recently the police commissioner publicly stated that as many as two hundred men with known criminal records find an avocation as drivers of taxicabs in this city. The disreputable conveyances that haunt the ferries and appear up town late at night are a disgrace to a community like ours, and should not be tolerated on the city streets.

Let us now consider the outgrown ordinances which at present hamper the New York cabman at every turn. I call them "outgrown" advisedly, because they are relics of the pre-taxicab days when the cab business was on an entirely different basis, and with the exception of some slight regulations by the city authorities of the taximeter itself, have not been changed to meet the undoubtedly changed conditions that the taxicab created.

All cabs in New York are divided into two classes, (1) "public hacks," and (2) "special hacks." Each class is entirely separate and is governed by entirely separate restrictions.

The public hacks are really the public cab service of New York. They may pick up fares while driving around the streets, and by enactment of the board of aldermen certain locations are designated as "public hack stands" where they may stand. With one or two exceptions however, such as the theatres fifteen minutes before the close of the performance, the public hack stands to which these public hacks are relegated have no value as originating points of traffic. The places where traffic originates, such as the big railroad stations and restaurants, are exclusively occupied by the big companies owning the other class of vehicles—"special hacks." It is comparatively difficult for a public hackman to obtain a fare. They get but the overflow, and form a dejected fringe around the public squares and similar places, where to hire one is really an inconvenience.

The special hacks on the other hand are the outgrowth of the days when every club, hotel and railroad ran its own cab business for the benefit exclusively of its members, guests or patrons. The ordinance governing special cabs provides that the owner or occupant of any railroad station, hotel or club or similar public building may have the street in front of his premises utilized as a private hack stand for a limited number of special hacks. The ordinance then goes on to say that such special hacks must confine their service exclusively to guests or patrons of the building in front of which they are permitted to stand and must not await employment nor solicit fares at any other point.[1]

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[1] See sec. 317, Code of Ordinances, in effect May 3, 1909.

While the ordinance provides that the special hackman must confine himself exclusively to the traffic originating from the building in front of which he stands, this provision is absolutely unenforceable and is openly violated. In fact the business of the big companies that operate as special hackmen is actually founded on the fact that it is impossible to enforce this provision of the ordinance, and they use their private hack stands as supplementary garages, storing machines there, not only for the benefit of the occupants in front of whose building they stand as limited by law, but also for the benefit of the surrounding neighborhood, and as a convenient distributing point for the vicinity.

Instead of remaining private stands as they were formerly, these privately owned hackstands have become to all intents and purposes public stands, that is, public so far as their patrons go, but intensely private and exclusive as far as the hacks that are permitted to stand there are concerned. For when it was found that that part of the ordinance restricting the use of the cabs exclusively to the patrons of the building in front of which a private stand was located was unenforceable, it was discovered that the right to maintain a garage and stand in the public street on which none but a specified company's cabs could stand was immensely valuable; the value depending more on the location than upon the actual amount of traffic originating from the building in front of which the private stand was situated. The owners of hotels, clubs, railroad stations, etc., now lease out this privilege to the highest bidder. It is said that the total amount realized by the hotels, etc., in New York from this source exceeds $350,000 per year. The commissioner of accounts estimates the amount to be $362,260.21. The Waldorf-Astoria collects $30,000; the Astor about $10,000; the Union Club $5000, the Hotel Knickerbocker $20,000. The amount each hotel, etc., receives is based on a percentage of the fares originating at that point, whether from the hotel itself or from the neighborhood. Under this arrangement 10 per cent of each passenger's fare automatically goes to the hotel or club which graciously permits the public to use its own streets. By this atrocious form of special privilege the right to use the public thoroughfares, declared by law to be for the use of all, is sold to the highest bidder, and the public through high fares obliged to pay for what belongs to them. This delightful scheme not only makes it possible to mulct the companies, and through them the public, for privileges in the city streets, but it effectually prevents the cab owner from picking up such return fares as could otherwise be obtained in New York. For a company hiring one stand is forbidden by the ordinance from standing its cabs on those of another company, or from going on the public cabstands, reserved exclusively for the public cabmen.

For example one evening I took a taxi from the private hack stand at the Buckingham Hotel (50th street and Fifth Avenue) and drove down to a house in the neighborhood of Washington Square for dinner. As I paid the driver at my destination, I noticed another cabstand almost directly across the street in front of the Hotel Lafayette-Brevoort. One would naturally suppose my cab had only to cross the street and there await a new fare, but the Lafayette-Brevoort privilege was leased to a concern other than that to which my cab belonged; in consequence my cab was obliged to return empty over two miles uptown to the starting point, and there await a return fare.

Could any system be more absurd?

A scheme of taxicab service that levies tribute on the public for the right to use the public streets, and forbids cabs to solicit return fares has no place upon the statute books of any modern city.

The reforms which I propose, and which I have incorporated into an ordinance which now awaits action by the board of aldermen in New York are as follows:

1. The placing of all hacks of every character into one class, viz: "public hacks," and putting these public hacks under constant official supervision, giving to the mayor through his license bureau the right to refuse the license if the cab is not up to a certain standard for vehicles of that character, and the right to suspend or revoke the license if not maintained in a proper condition.
2. A careful licensing system for the drivers, so that the criminal, the intemperate and the diseased cannot endanger the lives of the public by acting as drivers of public hacks.
3. The abolishment of the private hack stands as such, and their transformation when desired by any hotel, club, or railroad station into public hack stands, on which all duly licensed cabs might go subject to the traffic regulations of the police, permitting cabs to go freely on every stand whether now called public or private.
4. A material reduction in the rates of fare made possible by the saving in the cost of operation under such a system.

The result of these reforms would be immediately to place within reach of even the moderately well-to-do a means of transportation that would be both safe, cleanly, and well regulated. Such a scheme of transportation would compete satisfactorily with the baggage transfer companies, and in fact a hundred new uses would be discovered for the taxicab. A profitable business would be created, giving employment to thousands, where now but a few hundred are employed, and last, but by no means least, New York would have a cab service which would be a source of pride, and not a reproach to the intelligence of her people.

Courtlandt Nicoll.[2]

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[2] Member of the New York Board of Aldermen.

THE HOUSTON CHAMBER OF COMMERCE

WITHOUT an aggressive business organization a city may be likened to a ship without a rudder. In the live city one will find an active chamber of commerce. The two go hand in hand, but never alone. The New South possesses many of these active organizations and the liveliness of progress in the fifteen southern states will suggest that there is not a backward organization among them.

No city in the land owns a chamber of commerce more active than Houston's. The chamber is not only always in the forefront of every civic movement, but one generally finds the big movements and campaigns are inaugurated by that body and the campaign put through to a successful completion. Nor is it ever too busy to drop for a time voluminous routine matters to plunge into the thick of a fight to carry out a civic plan for the city's betterment. Houston is doing big things and the Houston chamber "*puts over*" big things. Two bond issues recently voted and carried—one for a $500,000 viaduct and a second for $1,250,000 to be added to a like amount from the government for the improvement of the Houston ship channel are suggestions of the big things it initiates and carries.

The ship channel project was one of the first big civic problems taken hold of by the chamber. Buffalo Bayou, a natural arm of the sea, extending from Houston forty-eight miles to the Gulf of Mexico, had long been in use as a waterway for the shipment of freight and the volume of traffic over its waters was about $50,000,000 annually. Its depth averaged about eighteen feet, which made possible traffic by small coasting vessels and barges.

The chamber made a study of the Manchester (England) ship canal and likened the situation in Houston with that of Manchester. The English city was an inland city some miles from the coast and its shipping was at the mercy of the railroads. Several millions of dollars were raised by Manchester to dig a ship canal through the bed of the sluggish Mersey and through solid rock. In due time the giant project was completed and the largest ships of ocean commerce came direct to the doors of Manchester. Today Manchester is a famous world seaport.

Profiting by this example the Houston chamber took up the project. It changed the name of the bayou to that of the "Houston Ship Channel" and started plans to secure an appropriation from the federal government to deepen the channel to a minimum depth of twenty-five feet and make Houston a seaport. After months of effort congress granted an appropriation of $1,250,000 conditional upon Houston raising an equal amount. Houston called "the bluff." A proposal to bond to the extent of $1,250,000 was submitted and the chamber carried on an active campaign, and the bonds carried nearly unanimously. They were later purchased by the national banks and trust companies of Houston, the city of Houston and the county of Harris and the money made immediately available. In June of this year the work was started. The city is constructing free municipal wharves at the Houston terminus of the channel which will forever guarantee shipping over the Houston ship channel freedom from wharf charges.

Simultaneously with the ship channel campaign the chamber of commerce was actively concerned with the carrying of bonds to the extent of $500,000 for the construction of a concrete viaduct 1600 feet in length over the upper end of Buffalo and White Oak Bayous and the net work of railroad tracks dividing the city into the north and south ends. The viaduct issue was carried nearly unanimously at the polls the same day the ship channel bonds were voted.

Another campaign the chamber precipitated and carried was the front foot paving campaign, by which the city adopted an amendment to its charter authorizing the payment for street paving by alloting two-thirds of the cost to the abutting property owners and the remaining one-third to the city. Until the adoption of the amendment street paving was paid for entirely out of the general revenues of the city and by bond issues voted by the people. Houston's rapid growth, however, made this plan obsolete, for the increased demand for street paving made the city unable to meet it.

To carry this campaign greater effort was necessary than in the viaduct or ship channel bond campaigns. Three cartoonists were retained and the newspapers of the city supplied free with cartoons advocating the amendment. Previously the two larger papers of the city had aligned themselves with the chamber in favor of the campaign, while the third was non-committal. The press agent's department investigated the workings of the front foot plan in other cities and explained it through the press. Letters from the people were invited and when a letter opposing the plan was submitted it was answered fully paragraph by paragraph in the same issue of the paper printing it.

Contracts were placed with every moving picture show in the city for the display of slides advocating the plan. Cartoons and slogans were displayed on the screens, every slide, in addition to the other matter, bearing the slogan "Vote for Paving." A providential rain fell for several days during the campaign, putting the unpaved streets into mud. Photographers were sent out by the chamber to photograph the wagons and automobiles bogged in the mud. Once when the fire department mired in a muddy street the bogged apparatus was photographed and thrown on the moving picture show screens.

The chamber organized a corps of public speakers, well known in the city, to go into the wards to explain the merits of the front foot paving plan and argue questions. Joint debates were held and every avenue of publicity was utilized to drive home the merits of the front foot plan over the one then obtaining.

The result was a thorough campaign of education. The people were shown how impossible it is for a city of 110,000 population to pave about 400 miles of streets by bond issue and out of the general revenue. The success of the front foot plan in other cities was pointed out and the remedy applied to Houston. When on February 14 last the question was submitted at the polls the amendment was carried by an overwhelming majority. Two years before the same question had been defeated at the polls. Entire credit for the subsequent victory should go to the educational campaign so thoroughly carried out by the chamber of commerce.

Another civic movement in Houston instituted by the chamber of commerce was that of a general clean-up campaign. This movement extended for three months and in some respects is still on.

For this work the chamber formed a separate organization composed of public spirited men and women, presided over by the president of the chamber. The organization was known as the Clean-Up Movement League. Like the paving campaign the clean-up campaign was to be educational. The moving picture shows were again entered and cartoons and press matter placed in the newspapers.

In the work the League had the thorough coöperation of every department of the city administration. The health department aided in the enforcement of the sanitary laws, while the garbage department added a number of double deck garbage wagons for the removal of all kinds of trash. Collection of garbage other than the regular daily service was taken up systematically. A week was allowed to each of the six wards of the city. A week ahead of the wagons inspectors canvassed every house and store in the ward and ordered a general cleaning of the premises and placing of the collected trash in a conspicuous position for collection by the extra garbage wagons.

During the six weeks that the extra wagons covered all the wards of the city tons of garbage were removed, besides the regular routine collection, which was not disturbed. When vacant lots were found the names of the owners were looked up on the tax rolls and orders sent them for the immediate improvement of the sanitary condition of the property. A property owner or tenant who proved dilatory in obeying the command of the movement to clean-up was threatened with prosecution under the laws.

During the progress of the campaign about 95 per cent of the property in the city was thoroughly cleaned. During the close prosecution was threatened against the remaining 5 per cent. The show of determination was all that was necessary and the remaining 5 per cent immediately cleaned their premises.

In order to cover all the ground and that no bad places would be missed the league encourged espionage by neighbors on adjoining premises. Lantern slides and notices in the paper urged complaints to the offices of the league of neighboring insanitary conditions. The result was an avalanche of complaints. Subsequent inspections developed the property of the complainant sometimes was in worse condition than that complained about. Slides and press notices then were put in, suggesting the Golden Rule be followed, adding "If neighboring property is insanitary tell us, but *How about your own*?" Thereafter the volume of complaints was cut down and were genuine when made.

The league's inspectors then visited all the corner grocery stores in the city and ordered strict compliance with the laws. Screens were ordered up and improved sanitary conditions installed. If one rebelled against the lever of the league the law was cited and the case submitted to the league's attorney. In cases where corner grocery stores had beer saloons in connection contests against a re-issue of licenses were filed against the store and saloon owner refusing to comply with the laws. This brought them instantly into line.

Texas has a "clean-up day" in April when every city and town in the state is urged to clean up. Yet the Houston chamber of commerce holds that one day is inadequate. For the success of a public movement an educational campaign is necessary. By observing only one day many do not even take notice of it. Others may note it and forget it. Some few may observe it. Few observe it to the full letter. Instead of a day Houston observed it for three months and the result was at the end of the period Houston appeared as clean as though a giant suction cleaner had passed over it.

Another civic campaign that the Houston chamber of commerce put through was a movement for greater civic beauty. Improvement of the banks of Buffalo and White Oak Bayous was undertaken by the chamber and a public forester engaged. While the city forester was engaged principally in improving the beauty of these two streams his services were available free to anyone wishing his advice in the improvement of their private property.

JEROME H. FARBAR.[1]

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[1] Secretary, Houston Chamber of Commerce.

THE VOCATION BUREAU AND THE BOSTON SCHOOL SYSTEM

NO DEPARTMENT of public service in a community receives so large a measure of private coöperation as does the school department. This fact is an indication of civic spirit and a recognition that educational progress is vital to civic welfare. Many of the most valuable services to our children in the modern public school have been the results of generous volunteer initiative, and of private support until the public has come to realize the value of particular social experiments and has had them incorporated in the school system.

Conspicuous examples of such coöperation on the part of private individuals and organizations are, the kindergarten, manual training, evening lectures, school nurses, and other distinctly modern features of our school courses. It may be said, indeed, that the public school system itself is an outgrowth of private philanthropy, assumed in due time by the state for the public good.

The most significant recent factor added to the school curriculum is vocational guidance. The school must not only instruct youth, but it must also advise youth in the struggle for a foothold in life. Under modern conditions of labor division and high specialization in commerce and industry, this advisory service has become a grave necessity. Transition from school to work has been accompanied by a needless waste of time and often by an impairment of the hopefulness and efficiency of youth. Thousands of uninformed and misdirected children leave school every year, taking the first work that offers, changing from place to place, and thinking only of pay. In such cases we find no "life-career motive," no apprenticeship, no growth in power, no laying of foundations.

Here was the opportunity of the Vocation Bureau in its relation to the Boston school system.

The Vocation Bureau of Boston was the first to be established in this country. The men and women behind it, leaders in commerce, industry, education, and social service, appreciated keenly the present misdirection and loss in the critical transition from school to work. They saw that choice of vocation is impossible to young people who are ignorant of the nature of the various callings, and of the conditions of success and efficiency in the modern world of work. They saw that neither school life nor working life could rightly serve the child unless mental training, occupational information, and definite purpose in education should be brought home to the child. Underlying all the activities of the bureau is the conviction that a longer period in school and vocational education are fundamental to achievement in every desirable occupation.

The movement for vocational guidance had its beginning in 1907 at the Civic Service House in the North End of Boston. In 1909 a large and strong organization placed the bureau on a permanent basis. The Boston school committee became interested and sought its help in organizing vocational counseling in the schools. A school vocation committee, of six masters, was appointed to confer with the director of the bureau, Meyer Bloomfield, who was given charge of this large and important undertaking. Full coöperation was established with the school board and superintendent of schools.

"School vocational record cards" were adopted. The elementary card presented family information, the parents' plan for the pupil, the pupil's school record, physique, and plans for further schooling or for work. The high school record card showed why the pupil entered high school, his plans for advanced study or for work, and the line of his greatest aptitude.

With such information in the possession of the teacher, intelligent and useful advice and help may be given the pupil. The school work may be modified in a measure to meet the need of the individual. Instruction becomes in a larger degree a personal service to the boy or girl passing out into the working world.

That advising might be done most wisely and systematically, a training course for vocational counselors was established. One hundred and seventeen teachers, one or several from each school in the city, were appointed to serve as vocational counselors to boys and girls in their respective schools.

The director of the bureau has conducted this training course, in fortnightly meetings, for two years, having the coöperation of the Girls' Trade Education League in the presentation of occupations for girls, and being ably assisted by experts and authorities upon the vocations treated, whether industrial, mercantile, or professional.

Among the subjects considered in the course for 1910 and 1911 were the following: The principles of vocational guidance, the sources and methods of vocational guidance, The shoe industry, The boy and girl in the department store, The machine industry, A group of trades for boys, The Telephone industry for girls, Stenography and typewriting for girls, Book binding for girls, Architecture, The use of statistics.

In 1911 and 1912 the following subjects have been presented: Mechanical engineering, Civil engineering, Electrical engineering: The building trades, (1) Carpentering, (2) Contracting and building, (3) Masonry and concrete, (4) Painting and decorating; Advertising; The needle trades, (1) Dressmaking, (2) Millinery, (3) Machine operating; Problems and experiences of vocational counselors; Presentation of the work done and the pupil desired in two of the city's industrial schools; What the high schools offer and what they demand; The facts regarding "opportunities for vocational training," as assembled by the Women's Municipal League.

As a basis for right vocational counseling, and to supplement the training course for Boston teachers, the bureau has for two years conducted an investigation of the leading occupations open to boys and young men. This investigation has shown, in brief, the nature of an occupation, requirements for entering it, conditions of service, pay, opportunities, and future; or all that the occupation ought to mean as a life pursuit.

These studies are to be presented in bulletin form, eight such booklets having been printed already, namely: The machinist, Banking, The baker, Confectionery manufacture, The architect, The landscape architect, The grocer, The department store and its opportunities for boys and young men.

These publications are placed in the hands of school counselors, and are used throughout the country by persons and agencies interested in the welfare of youth.

Coöperating with the bureau and supplementing its service for the Boston schools, are three other organizations: The Home and School Association, which deals with the home and school relation; the Girls' Trade Education League, which studies occupations open to girls; and the Women's Municipal League, which studies opportunities for vocational training. The school board, also, as a direct result of the work of the bureau, has appointed a group of teachers to make a study of the employment conditions of boys and girls who, at certain stated periods, have left school to work or who passed to work at the end of the last school year. The report of these investigators will have great weight in shaping vocational guidance in the Boston schools in the future.

Briefly, in summary: The vocation bureau is advising with the many people who come to its offices for consultation as to vocations, choice, and educational training; it is assisting in the establishment of vocation bureaus and vocational work elsewhere; in coöperation with the Boston school authorities it has established the peculiarly important training course for counselors, and has led the way for a large vocational movement in the schools themselves; by affiliation it has found strong allies in three organizations well fitted to deal with special features of the great, general problem; it has conducted a vocational guidance course at Harvard; it is conducting an investigation of occupations open to boys and young men; its vocational books are consulted by educators and laymen; in its offices has been gathered a store of information from the world of industry, commerce, and the professions.

FREDERICK J. ALLEN.[1]

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[1] Investigator of Occupations, The Vocation Bureau, Boston, Mass.; also director of the City History Club of Boston.

PACIFIC NORTHWEST MUNICIPALITIES[1]

IN ORDER to meet the ever increasing problems of modern city life, it has become necessary to unite municipalities of particular sections of the country into leagues, the purpose of which is the promotion of better and more efficient government through the establishment of reference libraries, bureaus of information and the exchange of ideas and experiences of city officials and public minded citizens. For a dozen or more years such organizations have existed in practically all portions of the United States. The leagues of New York, Ohio, Wisconsin, California, and the leagues of midland municipalities, embracing the cities of Iowa, Kansas and Nebraska are perhaps the best known.

The Commercial Club of Walla Walla, Washington, recognizing the need for united action among the cities of the Pacific Northwest, agreed to finance the organization of a league composed of the cities of Oregon,

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[1] This account of the Walla Walla meeting of the League of Pacific Northwest Municipalities is so significant that the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW is departing from its usual policy in regard to reporting such events. The meeting was not only an interesting one in itself but was significant of the need of the growing cities of the Pacific Northwest for more effective coöperation. Individually they are making great progress but they feel that the experience of each should be at the disposal of all and that they can make the most substantial and satisfactory progress by working together. In this connection attention is called to the suggestion of Dr. Clyde L. King in his report of the meetings of sundry state leagues to the effect that the National Municipal League and the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW should be the means of bringing these various organizations into closer coöperation with each other, a suggestion which is emphasized by the action of the Union of Canadian Municipalities in taking the initial steps for the formation of an international municipal league and asking the National Municipal League not only to participate therein but to designate its secretary as secretary of the proposed international municipal league.

At the Los Angeles meeting of the National Municipal League the council at the suggestion of Prof. Edward M. Sait of Columbia University, authorized the appointment of a special committee on state leagues, which committee is now engaged in carrying out this work. In the prosecution of its work this committee has sent to the various state leagues the following letter of inquiry:

> The National Municipal League, being desirous of getting into closer touch with the state leagues of municipalities, appointed at its Los Angeles meeting a special committee to promote this end. This committee consists of Richard S. Childs of New York, Dr. Edward M. Sait of Columbia University and Charles G. Haines. I am requested by this committee to ask you to send me the following information concerning your organization: (1) date of organization, (2), objects, (3) members, (4) membership dues, (5) publications, (6) sketch of typical year's work of the association.
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> In return for your courtesy we shall be glad to supply you with the reports of this committee and their recommendations when published.

H. A. Mason, the secretary of the California League of Municipalities, prepared an admirable paper on the work of the organization, which appeared in the October issue of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, and has been published as a separate reprint. We shall be glad to send you additional copies of this, if you desire them.

C. R. W.

Washington and Idaho. Accordingly, a committee was appointed, which included the mayor of Walla Walla, members of the club, and representatives from the faculty of Whitman College, Dr. S. B. L. Penrose, president of the college, being made chairman. This committee effected a temporary organization, appointed officers from among the most prominent citizens and municipal officials of the three states, and prepared a draft of a constitution. The officers thus appointed, with the coöperation of a committee of the Walla Walla Commercial Club, arranged for a conference, prepared a program, and issued invitations to all the cities, commercial and civic clubs, and interested citizens of Idaho, Oregon, and Washington. The result of their efforts was a gathering of sixty delegates in the city of Walla Walla on October 24 and 25, 1912. About twenty of the leading cities of the Northwest were represented.

The conference heartily ratified the action of the temporary organization, adopted a permanent constitution, reëlected all of the temporary officers, and approved the "League of Pacific Northwest Municipalities" as the official name of the organization.

The very evident interest and enthusiasm of the delegates in the spirited discussions after each of the papers indicated that the subjects discussed were of vital interest to the municipalities of the three states.

J. E. Frost, former state tax commissioner, one of the best informed men in the Northwest, characterized the Washington system of taxation as primitive and unenlightened because the state ignores the first great principle of equal taxation—that the individual should be compelled to contribute to the government in proportion to his ability.

> The state of Washington [he continued] is the only state in the union and to the best of my knowledge, the only civilized community in the world that grants exemption to predatory wealth and imposes the entire burden of taxation upon simple forms of property: upon the home, the farm, the merchant, the manufacturer. A tax is an evil which drives away or prevents a desirable thing from coming to you. A tax is a good tax which encourages home building and home production. Imposition of taxes on the whole of industry and the immediate fruits of labor prevents the proper utilization of the great resources in the state and drives industries away. We need more homes, more farms, more factories, more opportunities for the employment of labor and a larger home market.

In concluding Mr. Frost declared that the first advance step for the state must be a constitutional amendment to free legislators from the restriction which binds them to an equal property tax, imposed on visible, tangible property, at an equal and uniform rate regardless of its character, condition or tax paying ability.

One of the features of the program was a lecture on city planning by E. F. Lawrence, a well known architect of Portland. At the opening of his address Mr. Lawrence declared,

> The American city today, with few exceptions, is neither beautiful nor practicable. The American city has been hampered and stunted in its growth by real estate speculation carried on only for the day without regard to the future welfare of the community. The inborn belief of the American people that the rights of the individual are supreme over great community interests has saddled our municipalities with almost insurmountable charter limitations and obstructions.

C. M. Fassett, commissioner of public utilities for the city of Spokane argued for the municipal ownership and control of public utilities. He noted the dangers and difficulties attending such control by the officials of our cities. He maintained that,

> An expensive and thorough propaganda is being carried on by wealthy and powerful corporations which see their displacement and loss of profit in public ownership. Ex parte news accounts, distorted facts and false conclusions are sent out all over the land, and have their effect; and there is enough truthful news, caused by the action of the political influences to which I have referred, detrimental to public ownership to frighten timid voters into a refusal to allow it to be undertaken. But the day is surely coming when we shall be free to inaugurate with assurance of success, any collective undertaking which may add to our efficiency, comfort, and happiness.

The discussion of health and sanitation proved to be one of the most profitable subjects of the program. Dr. Tetreau told how through a vigorous health campaign in the city of North Yakima an annual scourge of typhoid fever was entirely eliminated. As a result of a health campaign conducted in a business like way a death rate of 252 in 1910 and 210 in 1911 was reduced to 108 in 1912, notwithstanding a marked increase in population.

Dr. J. E. Crichton, commissioner of health of Seattle, spoke on health as an asset. He maintained

> If physical well being is an asset, and we all recognize it as such, then that city will be the richest which best controls sickness and disease in order that the people may have the greatest number of efficient days in which they may labor and strive. That city is the richest which renders the social conditions of the people most pleasant and agreeable, that throws about them reasonable legal protection and restraint, because all these things conserve health and well being.
>
> Any community can reasonably protect itself from communicable disease, like scarlet fever and diphtheria, and there is no reasonable excuse why these diseases are allowed to multiply and exact their toll if proper preventive measures are applied. This much, however, cannot be said of tuberculosis since the necessary machinery of government has not as yet been so perfected that health officers have the proper authority.

On the subject new legislation to be desired, Mayor W. W. Seymour of Tacoma offered a series of recommendations which he hoped would be considered and presented to the legislatures of the various states interested in the league. Among the recommendations were the following:

1. A conservative home rule for cities.
2. A law which would make effectual the regulation of the social evil.
3. A more effective state food and drug act.
4. A state law permitting excess condemnation in cities of the first class.
5. A law requiring the state board of health to pass upon the domestic water supply of cities and villages before construction of the water plants.
6. A law establishing a reformatory similar to that at Monroe for men.
7. A law creating a court of domestic relations.

Under home rule for cities are to be considered: a law permitting cities to sell gas, water, and light to people residing beyond their incorporated limits; the exclusion from the debt limit of all debts incurred for municipally owned utilities which bring in a sufficient revenue; a law to give cities of the first and second class a more liberal investment of their sinking funds; a law giving cities wider latitude in the matter of industrial development; a law that will provide for the reduction of penalties on delinquent payments of local improvement district assessment; a law permitting cities of the first and second classes to assist various charitable and philanthropic institutions by appropriations of money.

The California league, through Mr. Locke, offered the Pacific Northwest League the use of its publication, *Pacific Municipalities*. The offer was accepted and an arrangement effected whereby the secretary of the latter league became an associate editor of the magazine and this monthly was temporarily made the official organ of the Pacific Northwest League. It was also proposed by Mr. Locke that beginning in 1915 the League of California Municipalities and the League of Pacific Northwest Municipalities have triennial joint meetings, thus affiliating more closely the cities of the Pacific Coast.

The conference was the first meeting of this character ever held in the Northwest. The delegates present voted that an annual conference should be held, and that a reference library and bureau of information be established at the headquarters of the league and adopted a by-law, providing for a legislative committee of fifteen members, five from each state to constitute a sub-committee for that state. The officers who were reëlected and into whose hands the promotion of the organization for another year is placed are: President, Ex-governor Miles C. Moore, Walla Walla; vice-presidents, Geo. F. Cotterill, mayor of Seattle; A. G. Rushlight, mayor of Portland; Arthur Hodges, mayor of Boise; treasurer, R. Insinger, president of chamber of commerce, Spokane; secretary, Charles G. Haines, Ph.D., professor of political science, Whitman College; executive committee, Miles C. Moore, president; James H. Brady, Pocatello, Idaho; A. J. Gillis, Walla Walla, Wash.; Theodore B. Wilcox, Portland, Ore.; Charles G. Haines, secretary.

Arrangements are under way to publish the proceedings of the conference and the important addresses will also appear in current issues of *Pacific Municipalities.* A vigorous campaign for membership has been begun. The success of the first conference, the unanimous approval of the plan to hold such a conference annually, and the very evident interest already manifested in the League assures a promising future for the new organization.

Charles G. Haines.[2]

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[2] Whitman College, Walla Walla.

NOTES AND EVENTS

Professor Charles Austin Beard, *Columbia University, New York,*
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I. GOVERNMENT AND ADMINISTRATION

The Commission Government Movement.—The growth of the movement during 1912 was fully as vigorous as in the previous years. It has not been confined to any particular section of the country or class of cities. The following is a list of the 1912 accessions: Sheffield, Ala.; Phoenix, Ariz.; San Mateo, and Pasadena, Cal.; Colorado City and Durango, Colo.; Boise, Ida.; Harvey and Marseilles, Ill.; Jackson and Meridian, Miss.; St. Paul, Minn.; Salem, Mass.; Atlantic City, Nutley, Long Branch, Ridgefield Park, N. J.; Lincoln, Nebr.; New Orleans and Hammond, La.; Ada and Okmulgee, Okla.; Sumter[1] and Florence, S. C.; Madison, S. D.; McKinney, Tex.; Everett, Wash.; Janesville, Menominee, Portage, Rice Lake and Superior, Wis.; Great Bend, Kan.; Covington, Ky.; Duluth, Minn.

Commission government has recently been rejected in East St. Louis, Ill.; Savannah, Ga.; Waterville, Me.; Paducah, Ky.; Boone, Iowa and Winona, Minn.; Los Angeles, Cal.; Norfolk, Neb.

On November 5, Baker, Ore., and Spokane, Wash., voted down propositions to revert to their old charters.

Arizona: The new charter of Phoenix, providing for a commission plan of government was adopted in November and sent to the governor for his approval.

California: The board of freeholders in San Jose produced a new charter in September. This instrument puts large executive powers in the hands of the mayor. The council will consist of five members elected at large.

Santa Monica's new charter, now in preparation, is to be of the commission type. If adopted, it will go into effect January 14, 1914.

Thirty-seven charter amendments to the San Francisco charter were submitted to the people at a special election held on December 10. One of them gives greater power of removal to the mayor, with the proviso that the civil service commission may be removed only in the same manner as elected officers. By another, the civil service commission, would be given greater power over appointees in the classified service. Another would increase the salaries of the principal officers. The results of this election will be reported in a later issue.

Colorado: The election on commission government, which was to have been held in Denver on November 5, has been deferred until Spring. The mayor and other members of the city government as well as the civic bodies are working in harmony to this end.

The home-rule provisions of the constitution have been found incomplete in that they fail to give the municipalities control over their local elections. This fact was emphasized by a recent decision of the supreme court which annulled the preferential system of voting in the Grand Junction and Pueblo charters on the ground that the state law required primary elections in all cities. An amendment submitted November 5 giving the cities definite power to control their elections appears to have been carried.

Massachusetts: Salem is now on the list of commission governed cities, having ratified an act of the legislature providing this form, on November 5. Two plans were submitted, the alternative form being the modified mayor and council plan. The initiative, referendum and recall are included in the new charter.

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[1] City manager plan.

Revere, a suburb of Boston, voted on October 14 on seven alternative plans of government, including the commission form, annexation to Boston, and two town meeting forms. Annexation received the highest vote. Commission government came in third. Retention of the present town meeting arrangement received only twenty-three votes out of a total of 1100.

Attleboro, one of the largest towns, will vote on incorporation as a city on December 30.

Michigan: By constitutional amendment Michigan corrected its municipal system so that a city may amend its old legislative charter by the convention process without resort to a complete revision. The supreme court held such action under the original amendment, to be illegal.[1]

Detroit has voted to call a charter convention. There is a strong sentiment in the city for municipal ownership of the street railways.

The charter commission at Saginaw finally concluded its work on October 25, and brought forth a commission charter.

Minnesota: On November 5 Minnesota voted down a proposition to amend the home-rule section of her constitution which would have cleared up any doubt as to the validity of charters under the commission form of government.

The charter commission in Minneapolis is considering plans for a new charter but is unable to agree on any one. It is possible that the present commission will resign on this account.

Duluth, Minn., voted on December 3 to adopt a new charter embodying the commission form of government, with the initiative, referendum and recall and provides for election according to the preferential system of voting. Except for regulation as to election, the commissioners have a free hand. Their salaries are arranged on a sliding scale between four and five thousand dollars, according to the population. The vote was Yes 5500, No 3400, the Socialists opposing an account of certain features and the Saloon an account of others.

Mississippi: An opinion of the supreme court affirming the validity of the Commission government statute was rendered in support of a writ of mandamus, by which the city council were compelled to call an election for successors.

The cities of Laurel, Gulfport, Clarksdale and Hatticsburg are in a state of doubt as to the legal status of the city government. The law under which they are operating was enacted two years before the present commission government law. The unsettled question is whether the second law superseded the first. The situation at Laurel is serious in that the city wishes to issue bonds to the amount of nearly half a million dollars.

Missouri: St. Louis amended its charter on November 5 so as to provide for the initiative and referendum.

Nebraska: The constitutional amendment providing for municipal home-rule in cities of over 5000 was adopted on November 5.

New Jersey: Citizens in Jersey City, Bayonne and Hoboken, where commission government was rejected by comparatively small margins nearly two years ago, are planning to have the question resubmitted. The Hoboken people claim that they were defrauded in the count at the first election. Recently two persons have been convicted of ballot box stuffing on this occasion.

Ohio: The adoption of the home-rule amendment in Ohio has greatly stimulated local interest in city charters. In Cleveland there is a decided sentiment for simplified government, though not necessarily for the commission plan. An extension of corporate powers, which will permit the city to engage in such enterprises as municipal markets, is hoped for. An election of a board of fifteen freeholders will be held, probably, on February 4. The mayor is using every effort to make the board a non-partisan one.

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[1] 168 Mich. 249, *Attorney-General v. Commission Council of Detroit.*

In Dayton, the chamber of commerce and the bureau of municipal research are heading a movement for a commission charter. Similar interest is manifest in Akron, Elyria, Canton, Hamilton, Youngstown, Ashland, and other cities. Prof. A. R. Hatton and others are working on a bill which will permit any city to adopt one of three forms of government: the commission, mayor and council, and city manager plans.

Oregon: The amendments to the legislative charter of Portland, Ore., providing for a commission form of government, and submitted under the home-rule provisions of the constitution, were rejected by a rather close vote on November 5. A difficulty in the election was the submission of a second document known as the 'short charter.'' The advocates of this plan essayed to cut out as much as possible the legal verbiage and leave only the skeleton or framework of city government, on the theory that the people would take care of the rest by initiative and referendum. For brevity the 'short charter'' is a gem. Once enacted into law it would give rise to endless litigation. The charter question will probably come up again next year, at the regular election.

Pennsylvania: Some of the friends of the Pittsburgh charter will seek, at the next session of the legislature, to secure amendments embodying the initiative, referendum and recall, which were refused at the time of the original adoption in 1911.

Texas.—Some time ago the attorney-general of Texas concluded that the 1909 act providing for the incorporation of cities and towns under a commission form of government was unconstitutional and declined to approve the issuance of bonds under it. Subsequently a suit for mandamus was instituted by the town of Aransas Pass in the Supreme court to compel the attorney-general to approve an issue of bonds. There was a popular demand that the court should pass upon the validity of the statute and definitely determine the legal position of the town. The court, however, declined to permit the filing of petitions for mandamus, thereby sustaining the attorney-general in his refusal to approve the bonds, but no opinion was rendered. The attorney-general however, concluded to approve bonds issued under the statute in question, provided it was shown by a census that the city or town contained more than 1000 inhabitants. He is now approving bonds issued by such towns under those conditions. The legislature of the state, which convenes in January, 1913, will in all probability amend the statute so as to remove any question of its constitutionality.

West Virginia: A new city charter for Wheeling, on commission government lines, has been prepared by the Municipal Improvement League. It contains no features of special interest.

H. S. GILBERTSON.[1]

⁂

Spokane.—Unknown "interests'' attempted at the recent election to abolish the commission form of government or to emasculate it so it would be of no value. The people defeated every amendment by a far larger majority than the vote at the time of the adoption of the charter, which must be taken to indicate that the citizens are satisfied.

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Norwood, Mass., has employed a town manager following the example of Staunton, Va. The town manager will be town engineer, superintendent of public works director of water supply and lighting system.

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[1] Assistant secretary the Short Ballot Organization.

Home Rule in New York.—The Municipal Government Association of New York State, on the eve of the Republican and Democratic convention, held a home rule conference at Utica, September 21.

During the summer months agents of the association had made tours of the entire state, including personal visits to thirty-four cities and villages. Meanwhile, the Association established, through correspondence, communication between the home rule advocates in all the different sections, published and circularized pamphlets and conducted a campaign of publicity through the daily and weekly newspapers. The delegates to the Progressive party convention were reached by circular letters and a memorial presented advocating the insertion of an adequate home rule plank in the party platform.

All of the above activities preceded the Utica home rule conference. As a result, the home rule issue had already been injected into the state political campaign by the adoption of the following plank in the state platform of the Progressive party:

> Municipalities should be given power to adopt and amend their charters in matters pertaining to the powers and duties, the terms of office and compensation of officials, incurring of obligations, methods and subjects of local taxation, and the acquisition and management of municipal properties, including public utilities. We are opposed to special legislation dealing with such subjects.
>
> We would make it possible for any city to adopt the commission form of government.

The main purpose of the Utica conference was to formulate plans for securing the adoption by the Republican and Democratic parties of even more specific home rule declarations than those contained in the Progressive party platform.

The principal address was delivered by J. Hampden Dougherty, Esq., of New York City, on the battle for municipal freedom. He outlined the history of the movement for municipal home rule in this and other states and described the program of the Municipal Government Association of New York State as including (1) home rule for the cities, counties and villages of New York State by the grant of adequate powers of self-government; (2) the passage of legislation which shall allow the free choice of municipal and local candidates in municipal and local elections unconfused by the presence of party names or emblems upon the ballot; (3) the enactment of a general municipal corporations act enabling the voters of a city to adopt a commission form of government or any other simplified form not inconsistent with the constitution or general laws of the state; and, (4) constitutional amendments, if necessary, to guarantee home rule in the municipal sub-divisions of the state.

The Republican and Democratic platform planks on municipal home rule were as follows:

REPUBLICAN PARTY

> We favor granting to all cities and villages adequate powers of self-government and control over their local affairs and property and the transaction of municipal business, subject to proper constitutional safeguards and the general laws of the state, but free from legislative interference in purely local matters.
>
> We favor legislation providing simplified forms of municipal organization, including the existing mayor and council plan, and the so-called commission plan, any one of which may be adopted by the voters of any city.

DEMOCRATIC PARTY

> Home rule, so often violated by the Republican party, has long been a leading Democratic principle. We favor general legislation conferring on all cities full powers of local self-government, to enable them to control their local affairs and property.
>
> We commend the Democratic legislature for passing the first proposed amendment to the state constitution, which, when adopted, will give to the cities and villages of the state the greatest possible measure of home rule, and we pledge our best efforts to secure its adoption.

The particular constitutional home rule amendment referred to in the Democratic platform is unsatisfactory to the experts of The Municipal Government Association, and they are urging a substitute.

Sam. A. Lewisohn.[1]

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Vote on Oregon Amendments.[2]—*Proposed by initiative petition:* Woman suffrage amendment, carried.

Referred to people by the assembly: creating office of lieutenant-governor, defeated; divorce of local and state taxation, defeated; permitting different tax rates on classes of property, defeated; repeal of county tax option, carried; majority rule on constitutional amendments, defeated; double liability on bank stockholders' amendment, carried.

Statewide public utilities regulation. Referendum, carried.

Proposed by initiative petition: Creating Cascade County—local issue, defeated; millage tax for University and Agricultural College—simple tax law, defeated; majority rule on initiated laws, defeated; county bonding and road construction act—grange bill, defeated; creating state highway department—grange bill, defeated; changing date state printer bill becomes effective—misuse of initiative, defeated; creating office of hotel inspector—misuse of initiative, defeated; eight hour day on public works—misuse of initiative, carried; blue sky law—misuse of initiative, defeated; prohibiting private employment of convicts—misuse of initiative, carried; relating to employment of county and city prisoners—misuse of initiative, carried; state road bonding act, defeated; limiting state road indebtedness, carried; limiting county road indebtedness—carried; providing method for consolidating cities and creating new counties, defeated; income tax amendment defeated (by 246 votes); tax exemption on household effects, carried; tax exemption on moneys and credits, defeated; revising inheritance tax laws, defeated; regulating freight rates, carried; county road bonding act, defeated; abolishing senate, proxy voting, (U'Ren constitution) defeated; state-wide single tax with graduated tax jug handle, defeated; abolishing capital punishment, defeated; prohibiting boycotting, defeated; giving mayor authority to control street speaking, defeated; appropriation for university—referendum—misuse of referendum, defeated; appropriation for university—referendum—misuse of referendum, defeated.

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Louisiana Amendments.—Of the nineteen amendments submitted to the voters of Louisiana on November 5 nine were adopted, namely, those providing for the exemption from taxation for twenty years of corporations organized for the sole purpose of lending money on country real estate situated in Louisiana at not more than 6 per cent, exempting from taxation the legal reserve of life insurance companies organized under the laws of Louisiana, levying a tax of 1 mill for supplementing the appropriation for pensioning Confederate soldiers, amending the section relative to the registration of voters, providing for an additional judge, empowering police juries of the state to authorize a tax for the construction and maintenance of public roads, relative to incurring of debt and issue of bonds for work on public improvements by municipal parishes, school, drainage and other districts, relative to vacancies in judicial offices in the parish of Orleans, and extending the time for the organization of steamship companies. Among those that were defeated was the amendment remodeling the state system of assessment and taxation.

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[1] New York City.

[2] The phrase "Misuse of the initiative" as is the judgment of the Portland *Oregonian*. The Taxpayers League of Portland published in *The Oregonian* of November 4, 1912, a careful summary of the amendments with advice as to how to vote on them.

California Amendment.—Of the eight measures voted on by the whole state in November only the two amendments to the constitution, proposed by the legislature carried: the free text book amendment, and the one making bonds of irrigation districts security for deposits of public money, just as other municipal bonds are. Both measures had a large majority.

All the initiative measures and those submitted under the referendum were defeated. These included the horse racing law, the three relating to the registrar of elections in Alameda county, the city and county consolidation amendment and the home rule in taxation amendments. All were beaten by decisive majorities.

✣

Illinois Votes on Public Policy Questions.—Under the public policy act of Illinois, the voters of Chicago and the state were called upon at the November election to pass in an advisory way upon three propositions: First, shall the next general assembly submit to the voters of the state an amendment to the constitution providing for the classification of property for the purposes of taxation with taxes uniform as to each class within the jurisdiction levying the same; second shall the next assembly revise the primary election act to abolish the scandals and disorder now incident to the filing of petitions, to increase the secrecy of the ballot and the political freedom of the voter, to simplify the system and reduce the expense of elections, and to encourage a greater popular participation in primary elections to the end that nominations may represent more truly the judgment of majorities; third, shall the next assembly create a legislative commission to investigate the most practicable means of shortening the cumbersome election ballot? All three propositions passed by large affirmative majorities. This is a source of gratification in many quarters in Illinois where these reforms are awaited.

The Michigan Amendment to the constitution permitting piecemeal amendment of city charters by the councils was adopted by a large majority.

✣

The Home Rule Amendment in Texas passed by a good majority. According to the latest figures available the vote for the amendment was more than 120,000 for and less than 43,000 against. The total number of votes cast for president at the same election was over 304,000. Had a majority of all votes cast at the election been required, the amendment would have failed.[1]

✣

Nebraska's Home Rule Amendment carried by a vote of 164,572 to 30,180. This vote was 63.7 % of the total vote cast at the election. The amendment had been indorsed by all political parties, and by the Nebraska law every straight party vote counted for it.

✣

Virginia Home Rule.—The amendment to section 117 of the constitution in reference to the government of cities was approved at the election on November 5 by a vote of 60,176 for, and 16,202 against.

✣

St. Louis voters demonstrated at the November election according to *The Star* that they had recovered from the attack of blindness brought on by the prohibition amendment in 1910, which caused them to see nothing good in the other ten amendments, even the one aimed at the suppression of ballot crimes the entire eleven amendments being overwhelmingly defeated in 1910.

The initiative and referendum amendment to the charter was passed, while the Free Bridge bond issue and the Municipal Assembly salary increase amendment were voted down.

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[1] From Herman G. James.

Toledo Unique Among Ohio Cities.—At the fall vote upon amendments to the state constitution, Toledo stepped into a unique place in Ohio by being the only one of the larger municipalities of the state which approved all of the forty-two proposed amendments, including woman suffrage. Among the major proposals were those of initiative and referendum, reform of the judiciary, more efficient primary election regulation, protection of the welfare of employees, and equal suffrage, which carried by votes ranging from 2 to 1 to 5 to 1.

⁂

Self-Governing Areas.—On September 12, Winston Churchill discussed in a speech at Dundee the scheme of dividing England into several great self-governing areas, pointing out the natural divisions into which England would fall. Comments on this plan by four or five local government officers are printed in the *Municipal Journal* of September 20. Several county officers declared in favor of the plan as saving time now lost in going to London for powers desired by municipalities. One officer however spoke strongly against the idea as introducing elements of lack of uniformity in matters in which uniformity was much to be desired. The need for more local self-government seemed in the opinion of this writer to be met by the increasing use of provisional orders.

⁂

Electoral Reform.—*Philadelphia.* The committee of seventy has drafted two bills to be presented at the next session of the Pennsylvania Legislature; one providing for the abolition of the "party squares;" the other that no voter may be assisted unless he is physically unable to cast his ballot.

Ohio. At the last election, Ohio defeated an amendment providing for the use of voting machines. *Massachusetts* has adopted one which allows any city to vote upon the use of voting machines.

Voting by mail. Charles Francis Adams recently advocated voting by mail. The chief provision is that the voter has an envelop with two compartments. He places his ballot in the sealed compartment and signs his name and address in the other. The officer designated to receive these removes the card with the name and address on it, checks it off the list and places the sealed envelop in the ballot box.

Preferential voting. Besides municipalities, many organizations are using the preferential system of voting. The St. Louis City Club uses it in the election of officers; and the classes in Harvard University use it in the election of class officers. *Minnesota.* A special June session of the Minnesota legislature provided for a state wide primary and removed party designations from the municipal ballot in Minneapolis, St. Paul and Duluth.

Woman's suffrage was adopted in three states; Oregon, Kansas and Arizona. In Oregon and Arizona, it was accomplished by the initiative and referendum. The vote in Michigan on equal suffrage has been in doubt for some time. A number of districts have held back the returns and the governor has stated that it looks as if it has been done with the intention of seeing how many votes were needed to count it out, or words to that effect. It is interesting to know that although woman's suffrage was defeated in Ohio, it is expected that within two years a chance will be provided for the question to be voted upon. Had this not passed, it would have been twenty years before it could have been voted on again. New Hampshire defeated it and must wait 10 years before the constitution can be changed.

Reginald Mott Hull.

II. FUNCTIONS

Philadelphia's Water Waste Exhibit.—Can a campaign of education lower the per capita consumption of water in Philadelphia 60 gallons per day?

If so, it can save to the city: (1) $197,010 annually in the pumping department alone; (2) $15,000,000 initial expense in new filtration beds; (3) added cost in the treatment of sewage to conform with the new law of Pennsylvania on that subject.

There is proof to show that the per capita water waste in Philadelphia through carelessness is, if anything, beyond sixty gallons per day. The average daily per capita consumption in Philadelphia is 210 gallons. In New York, it is 103 gallons; in Boston, 157 gallons; in Cincinnati, 128; in Cleveland, 104; in Detroit, 158, and in Milwaukee, 111 gallons. After taking into consideration the greater area of Philadelphia and the greater waste through the greater mileage of distributing mains, it would appear that the maximum consumption in Philadelphia should not be as much as 150 gallons per day.

The water bureau recently made a special investigation in a district containing 6000 people, a district in which there were practically no commercial or industrial activities, in order to determine the approximate amount of water wasted. The water mains in the district were isolated so that all the water furnished to the district came through one pipe. It was found that the average rate in the day time was 1,400,000 gallons, or 230 gallons to each resident. The night rate from midnight to 4 a.m. was something over 1,000,000 gallons, or 166 gallons for each resident, while the sewer was leading away about 1,000,000 gallons of clear and seemingly unpolluted water. It is a fair inference that a very large amount of the water running into that district from midnight to 4 a.m. was pure waste.

An investigation of an earlier date revealed that, in another district, there were leaky fixtures in 13,157 out of 55,655 houses, that is, leaky fixtures in about 1 house out of every 4.

Director Cooke decided to see what could be done in the way of reducing this waste through educating the public to what the waste meant financially. Hence the "Water Waste Exhibit." This exhibit was held in the city hall court from October 7 to November 7. It was under the immediate charge of H. W. Benjamin. While this method of civic education was unique, yet encouragement to undertake it was found in New York's experience in saving $3,000,000 from waste by an expenditure of $75,000.

In one of the booths the Philadelphia fire prevention commission displayed the various ways in which water can be saved at fires. While a fire may be considered a good time to waste water, yet it also affords a splendid opportunity to save water, and that can be done, as the exhibit showed, if proper sprinkling systems are installed. It was estimated that 90 per cent of the billion gallons used annually for quenching fires in Philadelphia was wasted.

In another place was shown the waste through various sizes of spigots, and leakages. It was revealed that a ½-inch stream wastes 25,224 gallons per day; a ¼-inch stream wastes 9504 gallons per day; a ⅛-inch stream wastes 2808 gallons per day; a $\frac{1}{16}$-inch stream wastes 480 gallons per day, and a $\frac{1}{32}$-inch stream wastes 264 gallons per day.

Another exhibit showed the per capita consumption of water in Philadelphia and other cities. There were also stereopticon exhibits at night, and exhibits of the various meters authorized by the bureau of water, and the amount of water that would be saved through their use. The city administration has finally succeeded in getting through the councils an ordinance making optional the use of meters. Great savings are expected from this source.

Surrounding the central booth, where most of the city exhibits were—a booth tasty and artistic—were lines of booths in which the manufacturers of all sorts of water appliances demonstrated their uses.

Clyde L. King.[1]

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Notes on Recent Tax Legislation.—Constitutional amendments relating to taxation were voted on by the people of seven states at the November election, but in only one state, Oregon, were any important changes made in the fundamental law.

In California, a "home rule" amendment was submitted by initiative petition, granting to each county and local district the right to frame its own system of taxation for its own revenues. This was opposed chiefly on the ground that it was too sweeping and might result in great confusion both as to the dates of taxation and collection and the classes of property taxed. The amendment was defeated.

In Louisiana, a special tax commission proposed a number of changes in the constitution which were embodied by the legislature in one amendment. The chief object was a separation of state and local revenues by exempting public service corporations from local taxation and making them subject to a special state tax; the amendment also repealed the existing state license taxes and left municipalities free to impose business licenses or not, as they saw fit. This amendment was defeated. Two amendments were adopted—one exempting from taxation companies loaning money on farm mortgages, and the other exempting the reserve of life insurance companies.

In Massachusetts, an amendment was submitted authorizing the legislature to enact a special system of taxation for forest lands with the object of encouraging reforestation. The vote on this has not yet been announced.

In Missouri, an amendment was submitted by initiative petition providing for the abolition of business licenses, the immediate exemption of personal property and a gradual exemption of improvements, that would ultimately establish the single tax plan of raising revenue. This amendment was defeated by a vote of about 6 to 1 throughout the state, though in St. Louis the adverse vote was only 64,000 to 47,000 in favor. Another amendment, providing for a state tax commission in place of the present board of equalization was also lost.

In New Hampshire several amendments proposed by the constitutional convention held in June failed to receive the necessary two-thirds vote although approved by a majority. Under the present constitution the legislature may exempt entirely any class of property, but such property as is taxed must be assessed and taxed at the same rate as all other taxable property. The amendments proposed were designed to permit classification of property and taxation at special rates.

In Oregon, two amendments to the constitution were submitted to repeal the "uniform rule" and permit classification or exemption. These amendments were lost by a small margin. Similar amendments had been submitted in 1910 and were then also lost by a narrow margin.

In 1910, an amendment to the constitution was adopted which prohibited poll taxes, and provided for county local option in taxation "subject to general laws," and also that no law relating to taxation and assessment passed by the legislature should become effective until ratified by the people at the next general election. This amendment was repealed at the November election and in place thereof, one was substituted which prohibits poll taxes and provides that the legislature shall not declare an emergency on any law relating to taxation and assessment.

In accordance with the provisions of the 1910 amendment (now repealed), measures had been submitted by initiative petition in three counties providing for establishing the single tax plan of raising local revenues. These measures were defeated.

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[1] University of Pennsylvania.

A state-wide "graduated specific tax" amendment, which provided for a tax on land values and franchises, increasing in proportion to the value under one ownership in any one county, and also exempting all property except land values unless the people of a county should vote to tax other property, was defeated.

A measure submitted by the state tax commission through initiative petition for the exemption of household furniture and personal effects, was adopted.

In Utah, two amendments were submitted designed to abolish the constitutional requirement that all property should be taxed at a uniform rate, and permit the legislature to classify property for taxation or exemption. This amendment was not carried.

A. C. Pleydell.[1]

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Accounting Notes.—*Completing New York's new accounting system.* The New York Chamber of Commerce through its committee on finance and currency has recently completed (October, 1912), an examination into the progress of the installation of the new accounting system of the city in the interval since the preceding examination by the same committee in 1909. At that time the committee reported: "No other issue has been presented to our citizenship in years so vital to the permanent welfare of Greater New York."

Notwithstanding this urgent recommendation, although substantial progress has been made in the installation, its completion has dragged along until the last year of another administration. Hampered by lack of authority, lack of funds, a shifting force of temporary clerks to do the work, and an internal semi-passive opposition on the part of the old régime, Comptroller Prendergast in 1912, after over two years of but little progress, reorganized the installation staff under the direction of Robert B. McIntyre. Since then, although some of the impedimenta still exist, much more rapid progress has been made and there seems good reason to believe that the new system will be in full and complete operation by the end of 1913. The Chamber's committee in its recent report says: "Believing that further delay would be extremely prejudicial to the interests alike of the citizen, taxpayer and bondholder, we ask the other commercial and civic organizations of the city and the public generally to join in earnestly asking the board of aldermen and the board of estimate and apportionment for the complete and effective installation of the entire system before the expiration of term of the present comptroller and to create a fund of $200,000, or such sum as may be necessary, for the employment of the necessary accountants of definite technical experience and ability to accomplish this purpose."

The report also says that before completing the introduction of the reform it will be necessary to strengthen the hands of the comptroller and to settle definitely several deplorable conflicts between the departments and the controlling central officers. It is probably as true now as it was in 1909, when the former committee reported, that the reforms can be "made complete only by amendment of the laws governing the city's fiscal system"—a necessity recognized by the subsequent attempts to legislate at Albany.

Syracuse Accounts. The city for several years has had a semi-annual audit by Price, Waterhouse & Company. The accounting system, while excellent in many features, does not provide for showing current liabilities of invoices and payrolls nor contingent liabilities of contracts and open market orders. Mr. Lindars recommended the adoption of these features. The report also shows that it is customary to make the budget in "star chamber" sessions; that inadequate provision is made for the redemption of $5,415,000 long term bonds and that some of the proceeds of twenty-year bonds have been used for maintenance purposes. F. W. Lindars, C.P.A. (Ohio), represented the New York Bureau of Municipal Research in Syracuse.

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[1] Secretary, New York Tax Reform Association.

An Atlanta survey was made by Herbert R. Sands, C.P.A. (N. Y.). His report emphasizes the need for unit costs and efficiency records throughout all of the city departments, also more publicity in budget making and a continuation of the beginning already made to centralize the purchasing power and standardize supplies and materials purchased. Suggestions are made also for improving the work methods of several departments.

The St. Paul water board's organization and methods of assessing and collecting revenues were examined by J. H. Clowes. The revelations of Mr. Clowes' preliminary survey showed the need of a complete reorganization of the entire department and the water board retained him to do the work. Among other discoveries was the fact that several meter readers who had been on the payrolls for years did not know how to read meters properly.

St. Louis, Mo., and Bridgeport, Conn. Peter White, C. P. A. (Illinois), has for several months been engaged in devising and installing new accounting systems for St. Louis, Mo., and Bridgeport, Conn. As a foundation for his new system, he inaugurated a modern segregated budget in each city. As in the New York and Chicago budgets the principle of standard accounts was adopted. The new St. Louis budget contains 20 and the Bridgeport budget 11 standard accounts. The use of a smaller number of such accounts in smaller cities has since been recognized by the National Association of Comptrollers and Accounting officers.[1]

Better accounting system for Cook County. In January, 1911, after several months' study of the fiscal system of Cook County, Illinois (Chicago), the Chicago bureau of public efficiency submitted to the county board a formal report in which a modern form of segregated budget was recommended as a basis for better accounting control over the county's expenditures. No action was taken by the county board until 1912. Meanwhile, the Audit Company of Illinois had completed a four-year audit of the county books and substantiated the findings and recommendations of the bureau of public efficiency with respect to many of the financial methods. This firm was reëmployed to frame the 1913 budget estimates according to the previous recommendations.

Spartenberg makes a "profit." The Audit Company of the South rendered a report October 29, 1912, on an examination of the accounts of Spartenberg, S. C. That the small cities of the south are beginning to recognize the importance of better accounting methods is a good sign of the times. Municipal accountants will be interested in the report particularly because it shows that during the year ended October 20, 1912, the city made a "net profit" of $11,893. The use of such terminology is unusual in public accounts. The explanation is given that the net profit is "the excess of revenue over expense."

HERBERT R. SANDS.[2]

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Police News.—*Credits for meritorious work.* Major Richard Sylvester, superintendent of the police force of the District of Columbia has introduced an excellent system whereby credits are given to members of the department for extraordinary or meritorious service and policemen who render good service after they have suffered disciplinary penalties are enabled in this way to restore themselves in the confidence of the department also work off financial and other penalties. This gives encouragement to those members of the force who most need an incentive and generally have the least incentive.

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[1] Report of Buffalo Convention, June, 1912.

[2] Certified Public Accountant (New York).

Letters of reprimand and commendation. Rudolph P. Miller, superintendent of buildings in the largest borough of the city of New York, has taken a deep personal interest in raising the efficiency of his inspectors, who perform important police duties. Each inspector's efficiency is rated quarterly as being satisfactory, unsatisfactory or especially meritorious. In the case of each inspector whose work has been rated as unsatisfactory or as especially meritorious the superintendent writes the inspector a personal letter giving the reasons for the rating. These letters of commendation are warmly prized and the letters or reprimand serve to make the inefficient inspectors realize that the superintendent knows exactly the nature of the shortcomings of each.

Chiefs of police under civil service. A recent Massachusetts statute has extended the provisions of the civil service law to the chief of police of such Massachusetts cities as may by vote accept this statute. Under this law chiefs of police will be selected from the police force of the city by means of a competitive civil service examination and chiefs of police can no longer be removed for personal or political reasons. Since patrolmen and other police officers have for many years been subject to the restrictions and the protection of the civil service law, the extension of this law to the head of the police force marks an important advance for the cause of good government.

Fixed posts and patroling partners. Rhinelander Waldo, commissioner of police of New York City has introduced for the policing of the more populous sections of the city at night a system of fixed posts with patroling partners. Two patrolmen are assigned to each post and of these men one alternately stands in the middle of the street on fixed post and the other patrols the beat. The man on fixed post can always be found when a policeman is wanted and the patroling policeman covers every section of the beat thoroughly. The requirement of an officer's presence on fixed post has increased the efficiency of the night patrol in many respects. For example, alarms of fire are more promptly sent in.

Leonhard Felix Fuld, Ph.D.

✻

Omaha Gas Fight.—Following the example of Minneapolis and Des Moines, Omaha is conducting a persistent campaign for a reduction in gas rates. At the present time the rate is $1.15 per 1000 cubic feet, but a New York expert, William D. Marks, after making an investigation of the operations of the Omaha Gas Company, reported to the city that the company should sell gas at the rate of 93 cents. The city has also employed James Hall, a Chicago expert accountant, to go over the books of the company and pass upon the question. If his report favors a reduction, the city will carry the issue into the courts.

✻

Des Moines Gas Fight.—Mayor Hanna, of Des Moines, has been conducting a persistent fight for 90-cent gas. He has tentatively won the fight and the gas company is committed to a three-year trial of the new rate to determine whether it is remunerative.

✻

Chicago Aldermanic Subway Committee Expresses Itself.—According to the Chicago *Tribune*, the sub-committee of Chicago aldermen, which recently inspected the subway systems of Boston, Philadelphia and New York, believes that Chicago requires a comprehensive subway system designed for rapid transit, high level tunnels wide enough for four tracks, ventilated according to the latest New York practice, and extending approximately from the down-town district to the city limits on the west side, to Sixty-third Street on the south side, and to Lawrence Avenue on the north side. It believes that all public utilities, except transportation, should be excluded from the tunnels, and would make no provision for gas, water, sewers, electric power or télephone wires. The ideal of the committee is to see all street cars and trains now elevated put under ground within the downtown district.

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Liverpool Municipal Street Railways.—The report of the general manager of the municipal street railways of Liverpool for the year 1911 contains a most gratifying account of the efficiency of municipal operation and the excellent results that are being obtained in one of the largest British municipalities, through the public ownership and operation of this service. The gross profits for the year were $1,221,000. From this sum a little over $250,000 was used to pay interest charges on the indebtedness contracted for the purchase of the lines, $295,000 for sinking fund charges and in round figures $380,000 for the reserve, renewal and depreciation fund. This leaves a net profit of nearly $300,000, for general city purposes.

The report also shows that the management has made an effort to improve the condition of the employees by providing for an increase in wages of one shilling per week for every five years satisfactory service. The interval for such increase in wage has heretofore been ten years. An interesting experiment made by the street railway management has been to take over all risks for accidents. In 1908 the management was paying to an insurance company $56,278 per annum for assuming such risks. Since the risk has been assumed by the municipality the annual outlay for this purpose has averaged $20,800.

Birmingham Trailers.—According to the Birmingham *Daily Post* there is some hope that the permission granted by parliament to the London county council to use trailers on the street car system will lead to extending this power to the provincial towns as well. Heretofore, it seems, trailers have been illegal and it is contended that the system of single deck cars with trailers is better calculated to take care of the traffic in rush hours than is the system of double deck cars now in use.

*

The Tramways Committee of Edinburgh has agreed unanimously to recommend the council to take over and work the tramways, after the expiry of the present lease with the Edinburgh and District Tramways Company.

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Trackless Trams.—The *Municipal Journal* states that a syndicate is desirous of gradually converting the present electric tramway system of Scarborough, England, into a trackless system. It was pointed out that the trackless system would enable cars to run to certain points, which cannot now be reached by the present system, with very little extra capital outlay. Trackless trams have been working most successfully in Leeds, England. Committees have been appointed to wait upon parliament for the necessary powers in order to extend the system.

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Motor Omnibuses.—A determined effort is being made by the local authorities around London to secure powers of control over motor omnibuses. Already a representative conference of municipal councils whose areas border on the southwest and west of the county boundary has passed resolutions on the subject. On October 31, 1912, another conference, composed of representatives of the Greater London Councils within the metropolitan area was held. Two questions are before the councils: first, the means by which power to regulate motor omnibuses may be secured; and second, the body to which regulative power shall be granted. It was the opinion of the conference that stringent regulation, coupled with power to tax, was essential because of the increased cost of road maintenance, the risk of serious accidents, the detriment to property, and the loss and inconvenience to tradesmen and others arising from the use of motor omnibuses on highways in the districts surrounding the metropolis. The conference resolved that the government appoint a select committee to inquire into the matter and take any necessary evidence, with a view to immediate legislation. In the very near future, motor busses will no doubt be playing a very considerable part in the transportation problem of American cities.

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An auto express wagon has been invented and perfected by Russell Thayer of Philadelphia which, it is believed, will make possible an extended use of the express truck in the delivery of light freight brought in by trolley companies. This trolley truck is a joint trolley car and storage battery wagon. It is claimed that it would be operated much more cheaply than horse-drawn freight wagons and will do the work of four horses. A five-ton trolley truck will consume about one-tenth of the power of a trolley car, and, owing to the storage battery feature, is as mobile as the more familiar type of electric vehicle. It will not have to use the track and can run on streets or roads where there is no trolley feed wire.

*

Memphis Telephones.—Mayor Crump is making a fight for lower telephone rates and for "decent service" from the Cumberland Telephone and Telegraph Company. An ordinance passed on July 30, 1912, prohibited telephone companies from charging a higher rate for business phones than $5.50 per month for unlimited service, on single private lines, or $4 per month for unlimited service on party lines. For residence phones, charges of not more than $2.50 per month for unlimited service on single private lines, or $2 for unlimited service on party lines, are provided for. The old rates were $7.50 per month for business phones and $3.50 per month for residence phones. The ordinance has been upheld both in the United States circuit court and in the state circuit court of appeals.

*

Pasadena City Farm Successful.—In 1888, Pasadena purchased 300 acres of ground as part of its plan for disposing of the city's sewage. Since then additions have been made until at present the city controls 530 acres and completely utilizes the sewage of its thirty-five thousand population. The sewage, after passing through a settling tank, is distributed over the land for irrigation purposes. Unfortunately, the irrigated land gives off an odor which is not altogether agreeable to the residents of the surrounding territory, and an effort is now being made to eliminate this by a process of sewage purification.

At present the farm is divided up as follows: Sixty-five acres are devoted to an orange orchard; one hundred and ten to the cultivation of English walnuts; one hundred and forty-two are sowed in alfalfa; and the remainder is used for grain and hay. There is also a state horticultural station which has done a large amount of experimental work and which has raised a large number of citrus and walnut trees, both for sale and for stocking the farm orchards. A part of the station is devoted to the growing of ornamental trees and shrubs which are sold or used for planting in the various city parks and street parkings. In the northeastern part of the farm is a dry wash in which flows a mountain torrent when the rain falls heavily, and this affords revenue from the sale of sand, gravel and rock.

For the fiscal year ending June 30, 1912, the farm, through the sale of hogs, hay, corn, walnuts, pumpkins, horticultural items. wood, sand, rock and gravel, produced $20,097.13. During the same period the cost of operation was $5,329.53. The profit of $14,767.60, will be applied to improvements and special work in the disposal of the sewage.

⁂

Bradford Sewage Profit. Last year the city of Bradford, England, made a profit of $150,000 from grease recovered from its sewage, and so great has been the success of the machinery installed for this purpose that $300,000 will be spent this year for improvements on the plant. The total sales of products recovered from the sewage last year amounted to $500,000. At present Bradford is the only city in the kingdom which derives a profit from its sewage, and its success is due to ten years' patient effort on part of Sewage Engineer Garfield.

⁂

Schenectady Embarks in Ice Business.—The socialist mayor reasoning that "ice is water, water is ice, and therefore the city could own its own ice plant and supply the citizens with ice as properly as it owns its own water works and supplies the citizens with water," embarked in the ice business with capital furnished from the municipal treasury. His effort were not appreciated, however, for a group of taxpayers brought suit to compel him to return the funds to the city strong box, and the supreme court decided that in this case "ice is not water," and if the mayor desired to supply ice to the citizens it must be done at his private financial responsibility.

⁂

Municipal Operation of Coal Lands.—Washington dispatches indicate that Secretary of the Interior Fisher proposes a plan to allot government coal land to cities and town to supply the needs of municipalities. He has recommended a bill granting 640 acres of government coal land to Grand Junction. Cities and towns in Colorado, Wyoming, Utah, Montana, Idaho and other states west of the Missouri River are vitally affected by this plan. The proposal provides for the prevention of any assignment or transfer of the land, for suitable protection of the health and safety of men mining and handling the coal, and for the prevention of undue waste of mineral resources.

⁂

Bradford and a Municipal Coal Supply.—A special sub-committee was recently appointed by the corporation of Bradford to report on the advisability of establishing a municipal coal supply as a means of obtaining cheaper coal. The investigations of the committee showed that the corporation could not buy coal cheaper than coal merchants and that the profits were so small—one shilling per ton—as to make it undesirable for the corporation to engage in the business.

⁂

Spokane Municipal Chemical Laboratory.—For some years this city has maintained a city chemical laboratory. Until the inauguration of the commission form of government, this laboratory was practically only an adjunct to the engineering department, testing cement, carrying power of materials, etc., but the laboratory is now under the supervision of the commissioner of public utilities, and the scope of its work has been surprisingly broadened, being of daily service to the health department, the water department, in the purchase of coal, oils, and in other directions, all of which react as a saving to the city. It is estimated that it has increased the quality of the gas furnished by the local company 20 per cent.

III. CITY PLANNING AND IMPROVEMENT

Boston Street Board Flays Highways Enactment.—Another effort is being made by the Boston municipal authorities to secure the elimination from the state highways act of 1891 of the limit of 125 feet for assessment in case of street improvements as well as the limit of 50 per cent of the cost of such improvements to be assessed. It was the theory of those responsible for the act that with the abutters paying the cost of the improvements, there would always be plenty of funds in the treasury for new streets. On this assumption the municipality planned a number of great highways, borrowing millions of dollars to carry out the plans and expecting that the cost would be speedily met out of promptly paid assessments. Assessments however were not kindly responded to and were paid only under pressure; and powerful agitation brought about an amendment which reduced the amount be assessed to 50 per cent of the cost to of the improvements. So, while the call for acceptance of new streets grows louder constantly, the municipal treasury contains only a few hundred thousand dollars for street improvements. According to *The Transcript*, the present commissioners declare that the act was wrong in limiting the area of assessment to 125 feet, for beyond this distance was a vast amount of property which received direct special benefit from the improvement of the great avenues, but which escaped just taxation under the provisions of the act. "Had it been possible to assess all property which had been benefited," the commissioners say, "the tax in no case would have been excessive and the city would have recovered a large part of the money expended and the loan for highway improvements would have had wider use."

* * *

New York City and Little Bryant Park.—The little open space back of the New York Public Library, called Bryant Park, has had an interesting history. It began as a residential square; it was then appropriately developed in a naturalistic fashion with trees, grass plots and shrubs arranged informally. With the change of the neighborhood from homes to shops and stores, a change in the purpose and use of the park is called for. In common with other public open spaces, especially in large cities, it has been constantly sought as a building site, not so much because of its suitability but in the hope that it can be had without cost. A more legitimate use for it is the present proposal to develop it as a foreground and setting for the great library building which fronts upon it and to replan and to replant the park itself so that it may better serve the new purposes which the complete change in the neighborhood has made desirable. Carrére and Hastings, the architects of the library, and Charles Downing Lay, the landscape architect of the city, are of one mind as to the changes desired. If their plans can be carried out they will introduce into American cities a new conception of the practical and artistic development of small centrally located open spaces, especially those connected with important public buildings.[1]

* * *

Jersey City Fighting Smoke Nuisance.—Jersey City is unremitting in its indictments of railroads for negligence in use of fuel and consequent aggravation of smoke evils. The city proceeds on the idea that although the companies have the right to use any kind of fuel, they do not have the right to use fuel negligently. The net result of the attitude of the city will probably be that its constant attacks will become so unbearable that the companies will burn anthracite coal or use electricity exclusively.

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[1] From John Nolen, Cambridge.

Pittsburgh Hump Being Removed.—The remaining portion of the famous Grant Hill, known as the "Hump," is in course of removal. This barrier to the growth of the business area of the city has been attacked three times. The first attempt was made early in the thirties and the second about 1848. In 1909, W. A. Magee, when running for mayor, made promises that if elected he would immediately take steps toward removing "the hump." Following his success at the polls, he submitted plans to the people for the project and the councils have undertaken the work. It is expected that the project will be completely carried out before 1913.

⁂

City Planning.—A committee of the National Conference on City Planning, (Flavel Shurtleff, Boston, is secretary) is making plans to conduct an intensive study in city planning of a specific area. Conditions under which the study is to be made and a description of the area which is to be planned will be communicated to civic organizations, chambers of commerce, engineering and architectural societies upon request.

⁂

Survey and Exhibit Department Russell Sage Foundation.—The Russell Sage Foundation has established a department of surveys and exhibits, under the directorship of Shelby M. Harrison and E. G. Routzahn, with offices at 31 Union Square, New York, as a center of information, council and field assistance in organizing surveys and exhibits.

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Tacoma Billboard Movement.—Tacoma has a substantial movement for the elimination of billboards. The city authorities have decided to discontinue the leasing of municipal docks to bill posters and bills will be prohibited on all city property.

IV. POLITICS

The Socialists and the Commission Form of Government.—The Socialists, officially speaking, are unsettled in their position toward commission government; and as a party, they have postponed action although a special committee reported to the last national convention the following generally unfavorable conclusions:

> The study of the movement for the commission form of government for cities in America reveals the fact that the forms proposed vary greatly in detail. Indeed, there is a great variation even in essential features. . . . . There has not yet been proposed a final and definite form of the commission form of government; the whole matter is in process of development.
>
> In view of these facts it is impossible at the present time to lay down or to fix any definite policy that shall apply equally to all the states and all of the cities with reference to this matter.
>
> . . . .
>
> In some cases the Socialist party organizations have already used their influence against certain objectionable forms and defeated them. In other cases they have compelled a modification of the form by insisting on the introduction of certain features that had been omitted; and so far as your committee can see, this discriminating attitude, varying with the conditions that concern the party in different localities, and varying as the movement varies, will have to be the position of the party.
>
> One thing, however, your committee would recommend, viz.: That a committee be appointed by the convention to study further the best forms of municipal government and to submit the results of their work as a basis for a form that may be proposed as an alternative and improvement upon the commission plan.

The trend of the report supplementing these conclusions was distinctly unfriendly and especially to the non-partisan feature, which of course the socialists everywhere, and under every form, combat. On this point the report declared that the elimination of parties is a seriously objectionable feature. In the language of the committee:

> There can be no greater fallacy than the so-called non-partisan idea. Whether it be the mere stupidity of our so-called reformers or the clever design of politicians who seek to manipulate municipal government to their advantage, or a little of both, we can see no logical reason whatever for this non-partisan idea. Some seem to feel that if they can only eliminate "parties" in municipal affairs, everything will be lovely. In some cases this is carried to the extreme of prohibiting any kind of party designation whatsoever in a municipal campaign. Generally, however, the idea is to eliminate national parties from the local campaigns.
>
> Little need be said with regard to the proposition that proposes to eliminate all party designations of every kind. Such a proposition would take out of civic life the responsibility of fighting together for principles. By eliminating all designations by which people would work together for some principle or idea, municipal campaigns would be thrown back again upon the worst elements in our political life.
>
> The experience of Boston with their non-partisan government is an illustration. Speaking of the situation there, George P. Anderson, writing on "The First Result of Boston's Elaborate Political Reform," in *Pearson's Magazine*, says:
>
> "The aim of the promoters of the new charter was to smash party lines and to break up party fealty. The charter accomplished this, but resulted in the injection of race and religious issues as substitutes. This is a most unfortunate result, but it is not wholly illogical. In ordinary campaigns the candidate of a party stands for certain principles or traditions of that party. Take those away, and the candidate's personality is bound to be the leading issue, and his race or religion cannot fail to be discussed. Which arrangement is better Boston knows to her sorrow. Other cities on the edge of a reform ferment, if they are wise, will pause before following her example."
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> And this is what might naturally be expected. The efforts to eliminate what is supposed to be the baneful influence of partisanship and the party, this non-partisan movement eliminates principle as well; and eliminating principle leaves nothing but personalities, race and religious prejudices as issues in municipal campaigns.
>
> Against the elimination of national party names and national issues even more may be said. There is hardly a serious problem of municipal government that can be solved at all aside from the state and national movement. Take the question of home rule. Here in the very nature of the case the city is powerless in the hands of the state legislature. The fight for home rule itself is a state and national fight. Take the question of the commission form of government itself—it has been an issue for state legislatures very largely. Or to consider some of our commercial and industrial problems. The real difficulties that concern a people in a city, involve state and national issues. For example, the supply of coal for a city—what can any city in America do on a problem of that sort without state and national action? The city may establish a coal yard? But that is only the merest fraction of the problem. The coal must be shipped to the city over railroads that are owned by private corporations. It must be mined in mines that are owned by the monopolies and trusts. The transportation of the coal becomes a problem of interstate commerce. Thus the most elemental problem of the city becomes a state and national problem, a question requiring a consistent and comprehensive programme for state and national action. To undertake to solve problems of this kind by limiting our efforts to local issues, and separating our cities from state and national issues, is absurd.

The Socialists also strongly object to the extreme centralization of power which is a characteristic feature of commission government, and to the elimination of minority representation, which of course grows out of the objection to the elimination of parties.

To ascertain the sentiment of the socialist locals there was a questionnaire on the subject. In response to this letter the committee received replies from 76 cities in 18 different states. The questions bore upon details relative to the form in operation in the various cities. Among other things the committee inquired what attitude the Socialists in the community had taken regarding the commission form, whether they were in favor or opposed to it. In answer to this question, 13 locals reported that they favored the commission form of government. Twenty-seven locals reported that they were opposed to it. Nine others reported that they were in a general way opposed to the commission form. Four locals reported that they were divided among themselves, some favoring and some opposing it. Fifteen locals reported that the comrades of their community had taken no attitude whatever, one way or the other. From this it will appear that there is no consensus of opinion among the Socialists of the country that refers to the commission form. The party is now officially studying the subject through a committee on state and municipal action of which Carl D. Thompson, city clerk of Milwaukee under Mayor Seidl, is chairman.

Clinton Rogers Woodruff.

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Butte Socialist Administration Commendable.[1]—Butte, like many other American cities, suffered from misgovernment and graft until hope for betterment under the old parties was lost and the citizens elected a Socialistic administration under Mayor Duncan. It is said the new administration has made the city clean morally and physically. For the first time in the history of the city, the streets and alleys are clean and sanitary, and it has been shown that infant mortality due to unclean conditions has been almost eliminated. Streets have been graded, traffic regulated, adequate police protection provided, city employees compelled to be efficient, and, as a result of good honest management all around, the city itself lifted out of bankruptcy to a position of good credit.

⁂

Baltimore Election Fraud.—Baltimore has been making a vigorous effort to eliminate a number of serious municipal shortcomings, and is now especially engaged in correcting the faults of her elections. The movement was started by a recent candidate for the office of sheriff who knew he was popular in one of the precincts of a ward and yet was not credited with a single vote in it. A little quiet work gave him evidence that the election officers had falsified the returns and a general opening of the ballot boxes revealed that the unsuccessful candidate had been fraudulently deprived of hundreds of votes. The election officers have drawn prison sentences, ranging from one to two and a half years, and the incident is not yet closed, for a general election housecleaning is in progress.

⁂

Kansas City Parks and Politics.—D. J. Haff, for 20 years a member of the park board of Kansas City and one of the men responsible for the policy which has made the parks of that city the talk and admiration of the United States, has been removed from office by the present mayor of the city because of his Republicanism. Commenting on the action of the mayor the Kansas City *Star* said:

> It is no reflection on anyone else to say that if there were a vacancy on the park board Mr. Haff would be the best equipped man in the city for the place. His name would be the first to occur to any person familiar with the situation. He has earned the absolute confidence of all his fellows. The town has been fortunate in having such a public servant. This is the type of man whom the mayor has removed. Of course, there is just one reason for the act. The politicians couldn't use Haff! So they had to get rid of him.

Ordinarily a change in a park board of a city is a matter not calling for chronicling in the National Municipal Review but the removal of so capable a man as Mr. Haff for political reasons calls for mention and comment. If our parks and schools are to be subjected to the spoils system civic workers will have reason to pause and consider.

Clinton Rogers Woodruff.

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[1] Based on communication of A. J. Clark.

San Antonio is Overturned.—Eight days before the fall primary in San Antonio, Texas, the Citizens League of that place placed in the field a candidate for the office of mayor and won by a thousand majority, carrying with him representatives to the state legislature, all of whom are committed to work for the passage of a bill giving the city a commission form of government. San Antonio is the last of the larger communities in Texas to throw off the domination of corrupt politics.

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The New York Police Situation.—The New York police situation will be treated at length in a future number of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW when the pending investigation has progressed further.

V. CONFERENCES AND ASSOCIATIONS

International Municipal League.—At the twelfth annual convention of the Union of Canadian Municipalities, held at Windsor, Ontario, the following resolution was adopted:

> That the National Municipal League, the League of American Municipalities, the Board of Associated Municipalities of England, the London County Council, The Association of Scottish Burghs, the South African Municipal Association and such other municipal bodies as may be found advisable, be invited by the Union of Canadian Municipalities to join with it in establishing an International Municipal Union, or League, for friendly intercourse and public advantage; and that the details be left to the Executive Committee with full powers.

The matter of organization is proceeding, and the secretary of the National Municipal League, Clinton Rogers Woodruff, has been asked to act as secretary. W. D. LIGHTHALL.[1]

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International Congress on Hygiene and Demography.—For health officials, sanitary engineers, chemists, bacteriologists, physicians, sociologists and a host of other classes of men and women interested in public health, Washington, D. C., was a veritable mecca in September, 1912. The great magnet which drew people from all parts of the civilized world was the Fifteenth International Congress of Hygiene and Demography, which occupied the full week, September 23 to 28. This magnet also drew to Washington, the previous week, the American Public Health Association and the Conference of State and Provincial Boards of Health. Coincident with the congress, in fact opening before and closing after it, was a notable health exhibit.

If those in attendance on the convention of the American Public Health Association, the previous week, were troubled by the embarrassment of riches afforded by five sections and 133 papers then certainly the nine sections and 450 papers of the congress put those who had to choose from its program at their wits' end. The congress program alone filled about forty pages, while the advance copies of official abstracts of a *portion* of the papers made a volume of 297 pages. The program and abstracts were printed in English, French and German. It is expected that the full Proceedings will run to 3000 pages. Doubtless they would be even more voluminous had the informal discussions been reported by shorthand. Instead of being so recorded each speaker was supplied by the section secretary with slips of paper and asked to write out his remarks in abstract—a course well calculated to reduce the bulk of the Proceedings and to devitalize the discussions.

Some idea of the scope of the program may be gained from the names of the nine sections and two sub-sections:

I. Hygienic Microbiology and Parasitology.

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[1] Montreal.

II. Dietetic Hygiene; Hygienic Physiology.

III. Hygiene of Infancy and Childhood; School Hygiene.

IIIa. Subsection on Mental Hygiene.

IV. Hygiene of Occupations.

V. Control of Infectious Diseases.

VI. State and Municipal Hygiene.

VIa. Subsection on Sex Hygiene.

VII. Hygiene of Traffic and Transportation.

VIII. Military, Naval and Tropical (Colonial) Hygiene.

IX. Demography.

President Taft, in his address, entered into the spirit of the modern health-protective campaign. Besides reviewing some of the splendid work of our government in combating disease in Cuba, Porto Rico, the Philippines and the Canal Zone he spoke of what yet needs to be done at home.

The section dealing with traffic and transportation considered the sanitation of street and steam railways, ships and shipping. The section which covered hygiene of occupation took up the city smoke nuisance, safety devices, occupational diseases and many other topics.

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American Civic Association.—The 8th annual meeting at Baltimore, November 19, 20 and 21, had its usual widespread and distinguished attendance and its usual crowded and influential program.

Baltimore is at present undergoing many significant civic changes. The Women's Civic League has much to do with these on the one side, and the city administration on the other. Both were adequately represented. "A Study in Gardens and Garbage" was effectively illustrated by Miss Hailean James, the secretary of the League, and "The Advance in Smoke Abatement" quite as effectively presented by Mrs. Frick, chairman of the committee which has undertaken that work. Chief Engineer Shirley of the topographical survey commission, made a significant address on "Spending to Save in City Planning," while a visit through the city's parks to Roland Park, admittedly the most notable suburban development in the United States, was illuminating.

Many notable matters were discussed at the convention. The secretary, Mr. Watrous, presented, and President McFarland commented on the present situation of the Niagara preservation effort begun by this Association in 1905, from which it appears that "saving Niagara on the installment plan" is an arduous process.

Ambassador Bryce delivered an epoch-making address on "National Parks the Need of the Future," in which he argued for the preservation and extension of these parks, concluding with the following propositions:

> In the first place, the world will last a long, long time, and we ought to make provision for the future.
>
> Secondly, the population of the world goes on constantly increasing, nowhere increasing so fast as in North America.
>
> Thirdly, a taste for natural beauty is increasing, and, as we hope, will go on increasing.
>
> Fourthly, the places of scenic beauty do not increase, but, on the contrary, are in danger of being reduced in number and diminished in quantity, and the danger is always increasing by the desire of private persons to appropriate these places.
>
> Therefore, from these propositions I draw the conclusion that it is necessary to save what we have got, and to extend the policy which you have wisely adopted, by acquiring and preserving still further areas for the perpetual enjoyment of the people.
>
> Let us think of the future. We are trustees of the future. We are not here for ourselves alone. All these gifts were not given to us to be used by one generation, or with the thought of one generation only before our minds. We are the heirs of those who have gone before, and charged with the duty of those we owe to those who come after, and there is no duty which seems to be higher than that of handing on to them undiminished facilities for the enjoyment of some of the best gifts that the Creator has seen fit to bestow upon His people.

Hon. Walter L. Fisher, secretary of the interior, who presided at the session at which Ambassador Bryce spoke, referred at some length to the present situation of the national parks and to the urgent need for national legislation to bring about the creation of a national bureau of parks.

The intimate side of park management was treated in a novel fashion by George A. Parker, superintendent of parks at Hartford, Connecticut, in his proposition to make public parks self-supporting without curtailing their freedom and usefulness. In a series of carefully worked out calculations Mr. Parker proposed to use the recreational impulses of a public beneficently toward the end in view.

City planning, of course, came in for much attention. President McFarland's address, entitled "Not Only the City Beautiful," was a plea for such comprehensive planning as will secure beauty as an incident to efficiency. J. C. Nichols, of Kansas City, contributed much to city extension by detailing his method of "creating a neighborhood by planning." A symposium on capital cities brought out an admirable statement by Hon. Henry B. F. Macfarland, concerning the progress of the federal capital, and a showing by Walter Burley Griffin, the successful competing architect, of his idea in "Planning a Capital for Australia."[1] Mr. Griffin's planning was extended and intimate, so that in addition to the features of appearance he as thoroughly considered and carefully presented the details of community efficiency.

At a session presided over by Mrs. E. W. Biddle, vice president, the good work of women was prominently brought forth, including effective fly fighting crusades.

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The American Public Health Association is one of the oldest of the many organizations of the country (actually the United States, Canada, Mexico and Cuba) devoted to human welfare and at the same time closely related to municipal affairs. The Association held its fortieth annual meeting in Washington, September 18 to 20, just before the International Congress of Hygiene and Demography. That public health is now a broad and diversified subject is shown by the fact that the Association is now organized in five sections and that no less than 133 papers were presented before these five sections and before the general sessions at the Washington meeting. The five sections are: (1) Laboratory; (2) Vital Statistics; (3) Municipal Health Officers; (4) Sanitary Engineering; (5) Sociological. All of the sections have been formed within ten years or so and the Sanitary Engineering and the sociological sections were organized only a year ago and had a place on the program for the first time this year. Notwithstanding the many sectional meetings the Washington program was so overloaded, in all sections except the sociological, as to give little or no time for informal discussion. But this was partly offset by the fact that many of the papers presented different phases of the same general topic, thus producing an organized full discussion. The presentation of papers was limited to five minutes each, although many of them would have required much more time had they been given in full. The speakers, it may be added, were not held rigidly to the time limit.

As to garbage collection and disposal, one division held that this has little relation to public health and that whether it has or has not actual executive work should be in the hands of the street or public works department while the other division was equally positive that this service is a vital health function and should be administered by the health department. In general, the line of division as regards both sewage and garbage threw the physicians on one side and the sanitary engineers on the other, the physicians arguing for a counsel of perfection and basing their argument largely on generalities and leaving cost out of account, while the engineers took into account the existing body of practical and theoretical data, weighing costs against health-protective results achieved and considering particularly how to make each dollar spent go the farthest in saving lives.

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[1] See National Municipal Review, vol. 1, p. 718.

The sociological section made its advent modestly, holding only two sessions and confining itself to a few papers at each of these. As chairman of this section, John M. Glenn[1] stated that the object of the section is to beget mutual understanding and coöperation between health officials and social workers. The papers and discussions showed that one of the obstacles to such coöperation is a lack of the mutual understanding urged by Mr. Glenn. A constructive paper by Prof. Selskar M. Gunn, of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Boston, Mass.,[2] outlined a plan for utilizing policemen for the daily sanitary inspection of premises, reports to be made to the health department for further investigation where needed.

For the first time in its history of two score years the association elected an engineer instead of a physician as president: Rudolph Hering.

M. N. Baker.

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The American Society of Municipal Improvements held its nineteenth annual convention in Dallas, Texas, on November 12–14. Among the one hundred and twenty-five out-of-town members who attended the convention were many municipal engineers and city officials from practically all the leading cities of the United States and Canada. Papers were read on the following topics: A system of park accounting, the city economic, standard forms for municipal utilities, sewerage and sanitation. The convention added a committee on fire prevention. Mr. B. E. Briggs, of Erie, Pa., was chosen president for the ensuing year, with A. Prescott Folwell, of New York City, as the secretary.

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The League of American Municipalities held its sixteenth annual convention in Buffalo, September 18 to 20. Among the subjects discussed were: "Relations of the Library to the City," by John Cotton Dana, of Newark; "City Charters and the Short Ballot," by Harold S. Buttenheim, editor of *American City;* "Lowell's Experience under Commission Government," James E. O'Donnell, mayor, Lowell, Mass., which led to a spirited discussion in which the merits and weaknesses of commission government were again pointed out. Among other things that Lowell had accomplished under the plan, the mayor declared that they had freed the city from debt and saved $50,000 in the first year. John MacVicar asserted that "the citizens of Des Moines are more largely in favor of this form of government now than they were at the time of its adoption. Most of the predictions of ills that were to come to the city because of the adoption of commission government have failed to materialize and many of the benefits predicted by those who favored the change have been realized." Councilmen from Fort Worth, Texas, and Omaha, Nebraska, both added their testimony, to the effect that the commission plan was in every way an improvement and that their citizens would under no consideration return to the old plan. A councilman from Tacoma pointed out that that city has already secured great improvements under the new form—improvements which their citizens had been unable to obtain for fifteen years under the old system.

The League, before it adjourned, gave unqualified endorsement to the plan of home rule for cities.

The following officers were elected: John P. Ryder, Omaha, president; Robert E. Lee, Baltimore, secretary; C. J.

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[1] Russell Sage Foundation, New York City.

[2] See National Municipal Review, vol, i, p. 49.

Steiss, Fort Wayne, treasurer. The next convention will be held in Winnipeg, Canada.

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New England Water Works Association.—This association, held its thirty-first annual convention at Washington, D. C., on September 18 to 20. The attendance of active members numbered about a hundred, besides whom there were present even more associate members (manufacturers and supplymen and guests). As usual, the program was selective and limited, thus giving ample chance for fruitful discussion. Most of the half dozen papers presented had to do with the state control of dams and water power development and public service corporations. In general, all three lines of control were favored by those who presented and discussed papers.

Both in popular and in technical interest the marked feature of the convention was a paper on the failure of the dam at Austin, Pa., which caused a great loss of life and property in September, 1911. This was a volunteer paper by the engineer responsible for the design of the dam, T. Chalkley Hatton, of Wilmington. The paper, while correcting some misconceptions, was not so much a defence as it was a frank, whole-souled confession of two great mistakes: (1) Failure to consult an engineer more experienced than himself in dam foundations, and (2) his not insisting that his clients (the owners) permit him to design a dam with a heavier cross-section. The concrete composing the dam was good, Mr. Hatton stated, and the construction was done under the direction of a competent supervising engineer, responsible to Mr. Hatton.

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Joint Water Pollution Conference.—On October 23 and 24 there met in joint sessions at Cleveland the National Association for Preventing the Pollution of Rivers and Water Ways and the Great Lakes International Pure Water Association. Each of these organizations has been in existence only a few years and as the general object of each is similar it seems likely that they will be merged into one association within a year or two, steps to that end having been taken at Cleveland.

Most of the papers at the Cleveland conference related to the pollution of the Great Lakes, with particular reference to public water-supplies. The physicians present (mostly health officials) were as a rule insistent on excluding all crude or untreated sewage from the Great Lakes and on treating such sewage goes into those lakes so it would have a relatively high degree of purity. The engineers in attendance regarded sewage treatment as a means for preventing nuisance rather on a way of keeping or making public water-supplies safe; and for the latter would place far more reliance on water purification than on sewage treatment. The engineers were not opposed to spending money for sanitary protection wherever needed but urged the necessity of making each dollar expended do the greatest possible amount of good.

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Autumn Meetings of Civic and Municipal Interest.—There is no better criterion of the keen interest now being taken by cities and civic bodies in governmental affairs than the increasing number of organizations and meetings held to further civic, social, and municipal ends. And the most wholesome sign is that these meetings and organizations are discussing specific problems in a scientific way. This means the creation of a body of accurate information and the development of trained men with a civic and community point of view as distinguished from merely a business or corporate point of view.

League of Virginia Municipalities. The seventh annual convention met at Alexandria on September 17. Home rule, civic planning, good roads, and commission government received the larger amount of attention. The officers chosen were: President, Mayor John W. Woods, Roanoke; secretary and treasurer, L. C. Brinson, Portsmouth.

The League of California Municipalities held its fifteenth annual convention at the University of California, Berkeley, during the week commencing September 23. The department meetings were especially successful. A uniform system of accounting for small municipalities was prepared by the clerks, auditors and assessors. The department of engineers and street superintendents discussed light traffic pavements and the Imhoff tank for sewage disposal. Resolutions were adopted favoring a modification of the law on direct legislation and the recall, and also favoring the use of the preferential system of voting and the grant by the state of authority to make use of the doctrine of excess condemnation.

Two-thirds of the cities and towns of California are now represented in the League, which is becoming a factor of prime importance in securing civic standards and municipal efficiency throughout the state.[1] The public welfare exhibition, conducted in connection with the meeting, was especially significant and suggestive. There was also a pure food exhibit.

The League maintains headquarters and an information bureau in San Francisco where any city official in the state can secure information relating to municipal affairs. The officers for the following year are to be: president, Mayor Frank K. Mott, of Oakland; secretary, H. A. Mason.

League of Iowa Municipalities. The annual meeting was held at Sioux City, September 24 to 26. The topics of chief importance were: Taxation, fire prevention, sanitation and commission government. The address on commission government was delivered by Clem F. Kimball, of Council Bluffs, who advocated certain changes in the Iowa Commission law. A. A. Smith, of Sioux City, was chosen president and Frank G. Pierce, Marshalltown, secretary. The meeting next year is to be at Marshalltown.

The Municipal League of North Dakota came into existence this year. The organization meeting was held at Grand Forks on September 27. Another meeting will be held at the same place on January 15, 1913. The officers chosen were: President, M. F. Murphy, Grand Forks; secretary, Charles Evanson, Grand Forks.

The Third Class Cities of Pennsylvania were represented at a meeting at Harrisburg on October 2, the prime purpose of which was to approve a statute for the commission form of government for the third class cities of the state. This bill is to be submitted to the legislature next January. Special addresses were made by Clinton Rogers Woodruff and Richard S. Childs.

The statute adopted had to be applicable to all cities of the third class in the state, varying in population from 6000 to 96,000, twelve having a population of less than 30,000, and twelve a population of from 30,000 to 96,000. To meet this situation, the proposed statute provides that the salaries to be paid to the commissioners and to the mayor, within certain maximum and minimum limits, are to be determined by ordinance in each city. By slightly reducing the salary of the mayor and councilmen any city can, without materially increasing the cost of administration, provide for a general manager. Hence the general manager scheme of government is contemplated certainly for the smaller cities, if not for the larger.

The statute provides for a compulsory referendum on all franchise grants. The referendum is permissible on all other subjects upon petition of 10 per cent and the initiative upon petition of 15 per cent. The plan provides that the mayor is to be chosen for a four-year term and the councilmen for a two-year term, all elected at one time.

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[1] See article of H. A. Mason, the secretary. NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. i, p. 603—EDITOR.

The League of Kansas Municipalities held its fourth annual convention at Salina on October 9 and 10. Legislation on weights and measures, suggestions for a municipal franchise policy and water supplies were discussed by university men. The subject which received most attention was home rule. Of special importance to those interested in the regulation of municipal utilities was the League's resolution that the power of the state utilities commission should be decreased. An increase in the veto power of local municipalities, however, cannot fail to block the effectual development of inter county and inter urban utilities.

What will amount to an amendment to the Kansas commission law, if carried out, was the resolution requiring that each candidate for commissioner should thereafter specify on the primary ballot what commissionership he especially desires. The present Kansas law, following the Iowa law, provides that the department shall be specified after the meeting of the commissioners, and that the ballot shall contain the names of commissioners only, without any reference to the department that they are to supervise. This method has not secured competent men for administrative positions. This defect will be overcome if each candidate will indicate in the primaries exactly what position he desires.

The following officers were selected: President, Mayor J. Dunkleberger, of Newton; secretary and treasurer, Prof. Richard R. Price, Lawrence. The next meeting is to be held in Kansas City, Kan.

The First Canadian National Congress on City Planning and Housing met in Winnipeg, Manitoba, in July. This congress, suggested and carried through by F. J. Cole, the town planning commissioner of Winnipeg, marked the climax of many initial efforts along this line. A significant event of the meeting was the visit of the Governor-General of the Dominion, his highness the Duke of Connaught, who gave a spirited address in which he emphasized not only the necessity for improved housing conditions, but also the necessity for the education of the working classes to a sense of a proper appreciation of decent and sanitary living. The practical result of the congress was the formation of a Canadian housing and town planning association, under the guidance of which there is every prospect of the prevention of the errors made by many of the older communities.

American Association of Commercial Executives. The seventh annual convention was held at Washington, September 23 to 25. The convention was distinguished for its round-table sessions rather than for its formal program. The significant thing was the place that commercial organizations must take, not only in the development of a city's manufacturing and commercial prosperity, but in bringing about a full, all-around, municipal development. M. B. Trezevant of New Orleans was elected president.

The International Association for the Prevention of Smoke held a session in September, at Indianapolis. Jacob P. Brown, city smoke inspector, was elected president for the next year and John Krause, of Cleveland, Ohio, secretary and treasurer. The next meeting will be at Pittsburgh in September, 1913. Smoke-consuming devices was the most important subject for discussion.

There is in these meetings a goodly sum of conscientious endeavor, and in these papers and discussions a goodly store of information that should be conserved, not only to the organizations particularly affected, but to kindred organizations in all the states. The question may well be raised whether the maximum conservation of this interest and information cannot best be secured through the National Municipal League. The League, and its organ, the NATIONAL

Municipal Review, could become the central organization and mouthpiece through which the efforts of all these organizations could economically be conserved and coördinated. The League headquarters could become a national clearing house and each state organization a state clearing house for information and suggestions of real municipal usefulness. Is it not time for definite action along this line?

Clyde L. King.[1]

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British Associations.—*British Municipal Engineers.* At the fourth annual meeting of the Institution in London, on October 11, the president's address was devoted to a consideration of the training of municipal engineers. He pointed out that he must have a broad training in civil and mechanical engineering as well as in architecture. He emphasized the importance of practical work in the training and advocated the development of the inventive genius, while not minimizing the importance of the purely theoretical work.

National Association of Local Government Officers. At the annual meeting at the Guilhall, London, on October 12, the main topics of discussion were the superannuation scheme and the examination system. As regards the former it was voted that all necessary steps should be taken to secure the introduction of a superannuation bill for local officers and to push the same until it became an act. The scheme proposed is a national one in application, but it does not look toward state subsidy. The central fund is to be formed by contributions from the employers and the employed. As regards the system of examinations recently inaugurated by the Association it was moved that officers who had already been in the municipal service a certain number of years should be given exemptions from examination. This was urged as necessary for the protection of the older men in the service, but the motion was lost by a vote of 38 to 37.

Association of Municipal Corporations. At the fall meeting held at Guilhall, London, on October 11, 130 municipalities were represented. The main business of the meeting was the consideration of a report by the law committee criticising the mental deficiency bill. This measure, fixing the responsibility of municipal corporations with respect to inhabitants who are mentally deficient, was criticised from several points of view. There was objection to the central commissioners provided as being unnecessary in view of the functions of the lunacy commissioners. The financial provisions of the bill were particularly objectionable in the opinion of the committee, because, although this was regarded as a purely national service, the financial burdens were to be imposed largely on the local corporations. The committee were of the opinion that at least two-thirds of the expense should be borne by the exchequer. A further objection was urged to the provision for a government audit in this matter as being an encroachment on the autonomy of the local corporations. A system of professional audit by officials chosen by the municipality was recommended instead. This report was accepted by a large majority.

It was voted to submit to the various municipal councils for their consideration resolutions regarding the use of highways by heavy motor busses. One of these resolutions urged turning over the proceeds from petrol and other taxes on such vehicles to the local authorities whose roads are so used. The other recommended giving to the local authorities the power to limit and define the routes to be used for such traffic; this being of a nature to which all highways were not suited.

H. G. James.[2]

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The Union of Canadian Municipalities held its twelfth annual convention in

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[1] University of Pennsylvania.

[2] University of Texas.

Windsor on August 27–29. The significant thing about the Union of Canadian Municipalities is that it is really a central federation of many district unions. To this central federation delegates are sent from the unions of Ontario, British Columbia, Nova Scotia, Quebec, Alberta, New Brunswick, Manitoba, Saskatchewan, and Prince Edward Island Municipalities. *The Canadian Municipal Journal* is the official organ of each of the local unions as well as of the Central Union. Such might well be the relation between the National Municipal League and the various state municipal leagues in the United States.

The questions of taxation, single tax, moving picture shows, public utilities, electric franchises, natural gas, government by commission, and a report on uniform municipal accounting and statistics were some of the most important and significant papers discussed. A paper on "Exempted Government Properties in Canadian Cities and Towns" showed that the government properties, provincial or dominion, exempted from taxation by Canadian cities and towns, ranged from 8 to 31 per cent of the total assessed valuation of the property in the city. The author of the paper recommended subsidies from the province or the dominion in order to enable the city to compensate itself at least for the cost of giving to these buildings fire and police protection.

Clyde L. King.

VI. EDUCATIONAL AND ACADEMIC

Cleveland's Municipal University.—The establishment of a municipal university is at present only one of Cleveland's dreams. The Western Reserve University, the Case School of Applied Science, schools of law, medicine and art exist on the one hand. On the other hand is a great growing city of more than half a million people. It has seemed to some of the officers of the separate institutions and of the city that by coördination and coöperation, the life and culture of Cleveland could be better and more efficiently served.

The students of engineering could have the practical advantage of real service in the varied engineering enterprises of the municipality. The city hospital could be associated with an enlarged school of medicine and surgery. The health department with a school of hygiene. The charities and correction departments would be a vital part of a school of philanthropy. The 2000 acre farm, on which are grouped the city's institutions could become an experiment station for scientific agricultural training. The shops and factories could work with trade school departments. The municipal government itself could be a part of the school of civics.

The university will have the outlook into the living present. Its teaching will relate itself to the social life. It will help to create an atmosphere of high ideals of culture and service. The city will have expert counsel always at hand. It will also be enabled to give to its children the fullest opportunities for culture, for growth and development in the best things of our modern life.

The social forces and resources of the municipality will be back of the university. It will be mutually advantageous. It is now scarcely more than a movement. It may take a number of years to realize the dream but twenty-five years is not long in the life of a city.

Harris R. Cooley.[1]

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A General Municipal Reference Bureau.—The People's Institute (50 Madison Avenue) New York, have announced the organization of a municipal efficiency and reference bureau under the direction of Frederic C. Howe, with whom are associated Mr. John Collier, for many years connected with the recreation and leisure time departments of the Institute, and Dr. Carol Aronovici, formerly director of the bureau of civic and social research of Providence, R. I. The purpose of the bureau is systematically to create a service, which has been for years supplied in an unorganized way by the Institute to cities and associations desiring assistance on specific municipal problems. The object is to create a clearing house through which municipalities will be able to secure experts and experts will be able to secure employment on special problems and the making of municipal and social surveys. The whole municipal problem has been changing its character in recent years. Upwards of a hundred cities have undertaken town planning projects. As many more have had surveys made coupled with "know your city" weeks in which housing, recreation, playground, school and other conditions of the city have been brought to public notice. These surveys have been made in different parts of the country, but up to the present time no organized association has undertaken to serve as a clearing house for this activity or to establish standards of conditions or to organize and promote the idea.

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[1] Director of Charities and Correction, Cleveland.

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Cincinnati Municipal Exhibit.—The thousands of citizens of Cincinnati that daily crowded the quarters of the municipal exhibit which were open to the public two weeks from October 1 justified the belief of the organizers of the exhibition that the residents of the city were anxious to know where the money taken from them by taxation went. The exhibition took as its primary purpose an exposition of how the city tax income is expended. By displays, charts and diagrams practically every department of municipal administration was represented. Displays of the police department, illustrating Bertillon methods and gambling and other violations of the law attracted lively, interested groups. Displays of the health department, exhibiting in all their seriousness, the high infant mortality of the city, the unsanitary conditions prevailing in many sections, and showing how to eliminate the fly and mosquito evil, taught important municipal lessons.

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"Memphis Commission Government" is the title of an official publication issued by the city of Memphis. Beginning with the November number it will take up the publication of official reports covering the years 1910–1911 comprising the first term of commission government in Memphis. The city departments will be taken up one at a time, thus giving the reports to citizens and taxpayers in such form as to permit thorough reading within a short time.

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Dayton Bureau of Municipal Research.—Through the assistance of President John H. Patterson, of the National Cash Register Company, a bureau of municipal research has been established in Dayton at 602 Schwind Building, with Dr. B. Frank Garland as president and Miss A. I. Dilks as secretary. Dr. Garland was previously president of the Central Council of Social Agencies of Dayton.

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Denver Municipal Orchestra.—In the place of the small band that used to entertain the citizens of Denver, there will be a symphony orchestra of fifty pieces, which will give concerts in the Auditorium. On Sunday evenings, high class moving pictures will be included, and it is the suggstion of the chief executive of the city that prominent citizens be called upon to make appropriate fifteen-minute speeches at the gathering.

"The Somers System News" is the title of a new quarterly issued by the Manufacturers' Appraisal Company of Cleveland, Ohio, to give information concerning the principles and application of the Somers system of taxation of real property.

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"American Municipalities."—The name of the *City Hall-Midland Municipalities* was changed to *American Municipalities* with the October issue. Frank G. Pierce continues as editor.

New York Continuation School.—According to report, 31,000 girls and 29,000 boys attended the continuation schools of New York during the past summer and kept up an exceptionally good daily attendance.

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"Denver Municipal Facts," the earliest of the illustrated municipal publications, will hereafter be published semimonthly under the title of *The City of Denver*.

VII. SOCIAL AND MISCELLANEOUS

Philadelphia Citizens Strike Blow at Loan Sharks.—It has been estimated that not more than 20 per cent of the people of the United States have such banking connections as would enable them to procure a loan in time of temporary stringency. The remaining 80 per cent are compelled to resort either to the pawn shop or to the loan shark, or else are driven to extreme privation through their inability to finance a temporary need.

The formation of a new institution to provide a dignified place at which the industrial classes may secure financial assistance has been inaugurated in Philadelphia by a group of professional and business men who have organized the Pennsylvania Loan Company. The plan of the company provides for three kinds of investment: First, capital stock of 2500 shares with a par value of $100 each, which provides the funds for lending and whose dividend is limited to 6 per cent on the book value; second, certificates of investment, to be sold to the public after the stock has been subscribed in full and loaned out, in multiples of $50 and upon which 6 per cent interest is guaranteed; third, installment investment certificates, resembling the certificates of investment except that they are paid for at the rate of $1 per week and bear interest at the rate of 5 per cent after twenty-five payments. A borrower desiring $53 will subscribe for the installment investment certificate which will then be hypothecated as collateral for his loan. He must pay $1 a week on his certificate, so that at the end of fifty weeks, his certificate becomes full paid. He can then retire his loan by cancelling his certificate. As additional security every borrower will be required to secure indorsements to his paper, but there will be no assignment of furniture, salaries or personal property. The only interest charge will be 6 per cent upon the principal of the loan.

The advantages of the foregoing plan are said to be that it makes a reputation for honesty and reliability a real asset even to the poor man, for he will have to be well thought of in order to secure his endorsements; it encourages thrift by providing for weekly payments, which may be applied to the payment of debts, following the well-known principle of building and loan associations; it may transform the applicant from a borrower to an investor, by giving him an opportunity to become a holder of a permanent interest bearing investment certificate, which he can withdraw or borrow upon at any time.

Franklin Spencer Edmonds.

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Montreal's Child Welfare Exhibition.—The Montreal child welfare exhibition which closed October 22 was notably successful. In a graphic way the exhibition took up the child problem and presented the evils that press upon every hand upon the child in the city, demonstrating the startling mortality due to congestion of population, unsanitary conditions and bad housing. The City Improvement League, the city department of contagious diseases, the Playground Association, the Humanitarian Society and the Society for Organizing Charity coöperated in showing the citizens the urgent needs of the children of the city.

At the opening of the Quebec legislature November 5, reference was made in the speech from the throne by the lieutenant-governor, Sir Francis Langellier, forecasting coming legislation in the following extract:

> Thousands of fathers and mothers visited the child welfare exhibition, which was very successful and cannot fail to contribute largely to the decrease of infantile mortality. The government has noticed with pleasure the interest aroused by that exhibition and proposes to call your attention to the measures to be taken to render it as effective as possible.

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The Use of Police Dogs.—The October issue of the *Journal of Criminology* contains a comprehensive summary by Dr. Leonard Felix Fuld of the use of police dogs in the pursuit of criminals. According to Dr. Fuld, a transfer of a peculiar human odor caused chiefly by sebacic acid is made by impression of either foot or hand and greatly augmented by perspiration due to hurry, rage or intoxication. Criminals consequently leave more redolent clues at the seat of crime than ordinary men. It has been found impossible to render the feet and hands free from the odor, and a trained dog is able to follow it under the most complicated conditions of smell. Nevertheless the science of police dogs cannot dispense with the assistance of other methods of criminology. The mere pointing of the dog to a person is not sufficient to determine that he is the criminal. There must be additional evidence. In the future the criminal who has been trapped by a police dog will not confess so readily as in the past when the ability of the dog surprised and astonished him. But while in time the police dog will lose his power to make an impression he will continue to furnish sure and reliable assistance to police authorities.

⁂

Portland Vice Crusade.—The Portland vice commission has been conducting a thorough investigation of the vice conditions prevailing in Portland, and found itself justified in classifying four hundred and thirty-one hotels and apartment houses as immoral places. The commission greatly deplores the fact that property owners have no sense of responsibility when their property is used for immoral purposes, and strongly recommends that property owners be compelled to put a name plate on their property and that hotels be compelled to give bond to be forfeited if disorderly persons are harbored. It urged also that registration at a hotel under a fictitious name ought to be a misdemeanor.

⁂

Denver Morals Commission.—Mayor Arnold, of Denver, has appointed a morals commission, with Dr. H. F. Rall, president of the Iliss School of Theology, as president. Among the members of the commission are Judge Ben B. Lindsey, of the juvenile court; David H. Fouse, of the civil service commission; Harry W. Purington, of the charity board; and George Creel, of the fire and police board.

⁂

Glasgow's Employees.—On September 5, the Glasgow city council adopted the report of a special investigating committee recommending that the committees of the various departments of the corporation should hear any workman who considers he has been wrongfully dismissed from the department, and who desires to be so heard. In Glasgow the city master of works and the inspectors have large powers of independent removal over persons employed under them.

The American Civic Association (Union Trust Building, Washington, D. C.) is arranging for a tour of Europe next summer, and the International Civic Bureau (1 Madison Avenue, New York) is offering four short tours in Europe at the same time.

VIII. PERSONAL MENTION

Dr. Herman G. James, son of President Edmund J. James of the University of Illinois, has been elected adjunct professor of government at the University of Texas and has entered upon the duties of his position. He will have charge of the course in comparative constitutional law and a course in international law. Dr. James spent the past year in the study of the Prussian administrative system, collecting material for publication and during the summer of 1911 gave a seminar course in Leipzig on American constitutional history.

⁂

Prof. Frank G. Bates, formerly of the University of Kansas, has been elected associate professor at the University of Indiana and municipal reference librarian in the Indiana State Library. The position will be a joint one. It is expected that Professor Bates will develop the municipal side of the work and give aid to cities and towns whenever requested.

⁂

Robert J. Beacham has been elected secretary of the Merchants and Manufacturers Association of Baltimore to succeed Thomas G. Boggs. This organization which is affiliated with the National Municipal League gives considerable attention to municipal questions.

⁂

Jesse Cunningham, municipal reference librarian at St. Louis since the opening of the library, has resigned his position to become librarian of the School of Mines at Rollo. He is succeeded at St. Louis by Andrew Lynde Bostwick.

⁂

Mrs. Melville F. Johnson, a member of the National Municipal League's advisory committee, has been appointed a member of the art department of the General Federation of Women's Clubs.

⁂

Dr. Edward M. Sait, department of politics, Columbia University, has been made assistant professor. This year he is giving Professor Beard's courses during the latter's absence.

⁂

Dr. Clyde L. King, of the University of Pennsylvania, has been assisting the director of the department of public works of Philadelphia in certain investigations he is making.

⁂

Robert W. Belcher, formerly assistant secretary of the National Civil Service Reform League, has been elected to the secretaryship in succession to Elliot H. Goodwin.[1]

⁂

Brand Whitlock, mayor of Toledo, Ohio, has sailed for Europe to obtain information to aid in framing charters for Ohio cities.

⁂

John Nolen has been retained by the city of Keokuk, Iowa, to prepare a new city plan for that city.

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[1] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. i, p. 639.

DEPARTMENT OF LEGISLATION AND JUDICIAL DECISIONS

Edited by John A. Lapp

Legislative Reference Department of the Indiana State Library

Richard W. Montague, Esq., Portland, Ore.

In charge of Judicial Decisions

Inspection of Hotels.—Beginning with 1907, a considerable quantity of legislation has been passed designed to safeguard the public health by promoting and securing the cleanliness and sanitation of hotels, inns and public lodging houses, and providing for their periodical examination by authorized inspectors.

Prior to 1907, however, nine states, including Ohio, Montana, Florida, California, Illinois, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Utah and Vermont,[1] had enacted laws calculated in some measure to protect the traveling public from adulterated foods and from insanitary hotels and restaurants. These laws provide, moreover, for the adequate ventilation of sleeping rooms and for the free and unobstructed circulation of air; the fumigation and disinfection of furniture and bedding; the regulation of plumbing; the disposition of garbage and waste; and the rigorous inspection of all sources of water supply. The enforcement of the provisions of these laws is entrusted to state and local officers, and certificates are issued when conditions are found to be satisfactory.

The chief characteristics of the legislation enacted during and subsequent to 1907 consists in a combination of the most desirable features of existing laws, the extension of their application, the introduction of new and approved provisions, and a system of inquisitorial examination by which infractions of the law are exposed and culprits subjected to punishment for their transgressions.

The first states to consolidate these inadequate and fragmentary beginnings were North and South Dakota in 1907; Oklahoma enacted a law in 1908; the two Dakotas amended their laws in 1909, and five other states, including Oregon, Washington, Kansas, Iowa and Missouri, passed similar laws; Virginia and Mississippi entered the field in 1910; Alabama, Idaho, Nebraska, Minnesota, Florida, Connecticut and Wisconsin in 1911, and Tennessee in 1912.

The laws of Idaho, Kansas, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Tennessee, Virginia and Washington[2] are substantially identical. The consolidated provisions of these laws comprehend the entire scope of legislation on this subject.

Hotels, inns and public lodging houses must be well drained, plumbed according to established sanitary principles, kept clean, sanitary, and free from unwholesome effluvia, and all water closets must be frequently and properly disinfected.

Beds, bunks, cots and other sleeping places must be provided with pillow slips and under and top sheets; the undersheet must be of sufficient size to completely cover the mattress; the top sheet must be as wide as the mattress, long enough to reach the entire length of the bed, and must be folded back over the other bedding at the upper end for a sufficient distance and in such a manner as to prevent the occupant's inhaling bacteria from germ-infected covering and protect him from contact therewith. Both sheets and pillow slips must be made of white cotton or linen, and must be changed after the departure of each guest. Quilts, blankets and other covering must be at least 6 feet in length and of sufficient quality and quantity. Beds, bedding and sleeping rooms used by transient guests must be kept properly aired, and must be disinfected at least once every 3 months, or oftener if the inspector requires it; the carpets therein must be taken up and thoroughly cleaned once or twice each year, and rooms and bedding infected with contagious disease germs, vermin or bed bugs, must be thoroughly fumigated and not re-occupied sooner than forty-eight hours after the disinfection. Each guest must be supplied with clean, individual towels, both in his private room and in the public wash room. The use of "roller" or "endless" towels in public wash rooms is forbidden.

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[1] Ohio, Gen. Code, 1910, sec. 12797-8; Montana, Laws 1907, p. 432; Florida, Laws 1906, p. 501; California, Civil Code 1906, p. 743; Illinois, Revised Statutes 1912, p. 2175; Pennsylvania, Purdon's Digest, 13th Edition, 1700–1903, p. 2339; Rhode Island, General Laws, 1909, p. 417. Utah, Compiled Laws 1907, sec. 746 x 19; Vermont, Public Statutes 1906, sec. 5413.

[2] Idaho, Laws 1911, p. 620; Kansas, General Statutes, 1909, p. 893; Missouri, Revised Statutes, 1909, ch. 57, sec. 6716 ff; Nebraska, Laws 1911, p. 281 and Anno. Statutes, 1911, 9840 x 3 and 9840 x 4; North Dakota, Laws 1907, p. 188; Laws 1909, p. 165; Oklahoma, Laws 1907-8, p. 434; Tennessee, Laws 1911, p. 132; Virginia, Laws 1910, p. 341; Washington, Codes and Statutes, 1910, sec. 6030 ff.

Kitchens, dining rooms, and all places where food is kept or stored must be kept clean and sanitary, and the use of rusted tin or iron ware in cooking is prohibited. Drinking water must be free of disease germs, and if taken from tanks or cisterns they must be securely screened with wire gauze to prevent the entrance of flies, mosquitoes or other disease breeding insects. The floors, closets, cupboards, pantries, walls and ceilings of kitchens must be kept clean, wholesome, free from dirt, dust and grease.

All doors, windows, and other openings in hotels and kitchens must be properly screened during the warm months in such manner as to exclude flies and insects therefrom.

Provision is made for the annual or semi-annual inspection of hotels, unless there is a change of proprietors, or on a written complaint signed by three or more patrons. The inspection fee varies from $2.50 to $25 per year, depending on the number of rooms in the hotel. Certificates are issued where the conditions are found to be satisfactory, and a set of books is kept for public inspection. The supervision of hotels is entrusted to the state and local boards of health and fire marshals, to the food and drugs inspectors, or to hotel inspectors appointed biennially or quadrennially by the governor. These officers are dependent on fees for their compensation or on salaries ranging from $1500 to $2000 per year.

The laws of South Dakota, Iowa and Minnesota[1] are much briefer and merely provide for the annual inspection of hotels by itinerant inspectors. In Oregon, Mississippi, Alabama, Florida, Connecticut and Wisconsin,[2] there is no periodical inspection of hotels, but otherwise the provisions of the laws are the same as those of the other states.

CHARLES KETTLEBOROUGH.[3]

*

Housing in Columbus, Ohio.—Two amendments have been made to the housing code of Columbus.[4] By an ordinance approved June 17, 1912;[5] formerly a tenement or dwelling house was allowed to occupy 50 per cent of an interior lot. The new ordinance increases the percentage to 60. The measurement for this percentage is taken at the ground level, with the exception (in the new amendment) that when the first story is used for other than tenement or dwelling purposes, the measurement shall be taken at the second floor level. The provision that "outside stairs, fire escapes, porches and platforms shall be considered a part of the lot occupied" was repealed.

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[1] South Dakota, Laws 1907, p. 346; Laws 1909, p. 282; Iowa, Laws 1909, p. 161; Minnesota, Laws 1911, p. 265.

[2] Oregon, Laws 1909, p. 65, Mississippi, Laws 1910, p. 157; Alabama, Laws 1911, p. 44; Florida, Laws 1911, p. 141; Connecticut, Laws 1911, p. 1356 and 1505; Wisconsin, Laws 1911, p. 505.

[3] Indianapolis, Indiana.

[4] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. i, p. 705.

[5] Ordinance 26559, approved June 17, 1912.

The second amendment to the code is an extension of the requirements relating to the yards for tenement houses. When the first floor of such a building is used for business purposes, the rear wall may be within five feet of the rear lot line, although the rear wall of the second story must be at least 18 feet (in corner lots, 15 feet) from the same line. Direct access must be provided by stairways from each story to the yard. The roof of the first story must be constructed so that tenants may use it, and it must have a closed railing or raised wall 3½ feet high around the sides. A provision that for every story added beyond three, the yard must be increased in depth 2 feet, was repealed.

Charles W. Reeder.

❖

Public Health.—There is no field of municipal legislation in which there is so much activity as that of public health and hygiene. Its range is so broad and the matters with which it deals come so close home to all people that it is a prolific field for municipal ordinances, rules and regulations.

The public health and marine hospital service of the United States has been for two years collecting these ordinances for cities over 25,000 and printing them in their weekly report. There has been collected and published under direction of the surgeon general a volume of 244 pages covering the period from January 1, 1910, to June 30, 1911. The volume groups and indexes the ordinances making them readily accessible.

Legislation on public health and hygiene as shown in the ordinances published relates to the control of communicable diseases including notifications, restrictions, vaccination, etc., and special action in such diseases as Poliomyelitis (infantile paralysis) and smallpox, prohibition of spitting in public places, licensing barbers and compelling shops to be sanitary; requiring street cars to be disinfected, cleaned and heated and prohibiting crowding; licensing and inspecting lodging houses and tenements; regulating public laundries and swimming pools; regulating the sale and storing of rags and second hand goods; prohibiting the common drinking cup; regulating the sale of food stuffs, including the place of sale, preventing adulterations, unwholesome food and regulating sale of special products such as ice cream, vegetables and especially regulating the production, transportation, marketing, storage, sale and quality of milk and milk products; regulating the slaughtering of animals and the sale of meats and providing for inspection; making special regulations for bakeries and regulating the sale of bakery products; regulating hotels and restaurants in regard to construction, care and maintenance and licensing them; providing complete codes for plumbing and housing; prohibiting cesspools, privies or regulating their construction; regulating stables and disposal of manures, and the keeping of domestic animals; providing for disposal of garbage and waste; prohibition or regulation of trades which are offensive, such as fertilizer factories, soap factories, tanneries, garbage reduction plants, etc.; declaring what are nuisances and providing for their abatement; prohibiting distribution of samples of proprietary medicines, pills or nostrums; regulating and licensing midwives and lying-in homes, requiring certificates of births, deaths and marriages; providing for organization of boards of health, or establishing office of health commissioner and miscellaneous provisions such as prevention of dust, single service towels, prohibition of roller towels, and medical inspection of schools.

The report states that a considerable proportion of the ordinances relate to direct control of known foci of communicable diseases. "The part which regulations of this kind play in public health administration and the detailed exactness of their requirements may be expected to constitute a fairly accurate index of existing knowledge of the avenues by which these diseases are spread and of the improvement of the means at the disposal of health authorities for securing information of the existence of cases of disease which constitute foci of infection."

⁂

City Smoke Ordinances and Smoke Abatement.—Bulletin 49, United States bureau of mines issued in 1912, presents a comprehensive view of the status of smoke abatement ordinances in the cities of the United States with hints for further progress in the same direction.

Among the factors affecting smoke conditions and abatement work are the state of public opinion, existence or lack of proper ordinances, organization and personnel of the department, topographic and climatic conditions, character of fuel, extent and nature of industries, and the volume of railroad and steamboat business done. The problem in a city using fuel oil or anthracite is vastly more simple than in one where bituminous coal is extensively employed in such industries as brick kilns, annealing furnaces and puddling furnaces or in great railroad yards. It is estimated that 43 per cent of all smoke in Chicago is produced from locomotives, and 12½ per cent from the special furnaces above mentioned. To the present time the greatest progress in smoke abatement is among stationary boiler furnaces, a condition due to greater general knowledge of proper design and operation of these, and to the less exacting conditions surrounding their operation. Railroads present a difficult problem in connection with round houses and standing locomotives.

For a study of the question cities are divided into three groups: (1) those under 50,000 inhabitants; (2) those having between 50,000 and 200,000; and (3) those of over 200,000 inhabitants. Of 240 cities of the first group, 12 reported either an ordinance or an official charged with inspection. Of 60 cities in the second class reporting, 17 are making an effort toward abatement. Among the 28 cities of over 200,000 inhabitants, all but five are giving attention to the subject, and of these five the general use of fuel oil in three practically eliminates the problem. The work has perhaps been carried on most successfully in Chicago and Des Moines, both of which have excellent ordinances and an efficient department.

A review of the situation in the 28 largest cities of the country reveals a wide variety in the content of the ordinances, the organization of the department, and the efficiency of the administration. The prohibition usually extends to "dense smoke" or "dense black or gray smoke." The demand of the law in Jersey City, Newark and Buffalo for practically smokeless firing gains little in effectiveness. Los Angeles sets the limit of density at "19 per cent black," and Rochester at 30 per cent, while Pittsburgh applies the Ringelmann chart test. In most cities dense smoke is permitted for limited periods ranging from five to ten minutes in each hour, though in Providence no limit is set on the frequency of the five-minute periods. In some instances favoring exceptions are made, as in Rochester where the prohibitions do not apply at all in certain early morning hours. Locomotives in transit through the city are excepted in both Rochester and Louisville. In Pittsburgh, exception in favor of new fires makes enforcement difficult. Buildings used exclusively for private residence are usually exempted.

Approval by the department of all new construction work and rebuilding, and the securing of a permit for operation are required where most effective progress is made. In St. Louis, Kansas City and Denver a defendant is permitted to show that no known device will afford relief and in Kansas City the unreasonableness of the cost of installation may be offered in defense.

Usually the work of inspection is in the hands of a smoke inspector acting independently or directly under the mayor, though sometimes attached to the building department or the board of health. Buffalo largely vitiates the ordinance by dividing the enforcement between the inspectors of streets and the police. In Chicago there is a smoke abatement commission of citizens to advise with the inspector, and an advisory board of engineers to consult on technical matters. Portland, Oregon, and Kansas City have no inspector and New Orleans has neither ordinance nor inspector. The requirement in Chicago that the inspector must have technical training and experience in furnace construction and operation has not yet become general.

In no city today is public sentiment on the subject sufficiently strong for progress to be made with a strong ordinance rigorously enforced. Desiderata for an effective ordinance are a definite statement of permitted density according to some practical standard; a maximum allowed density which is practicable; the requirement of new installations in proper form; and a trained inspector free from other duties. In conclusion model forms of ordinances are printed in the bulletin together with those in force in Chicago, Pittsburgh, Des Moines, Milwaukee and Los Angeles, and the Massachusetts law on the subject, all of which contain features of especial interest.

Frank G. Bates.[1]

◆

Firearms and Deadly Weapons in Chicago.—In a recent report made by the coroner of Cook County, Illinois, attention is called to the fact that during the years 1908–1911, 27 per cent of the suicides and 63 per cent of the homicides were caused by firearms. It is this official's opinion that "aside from the murders committed by certain classes of our alien population the carrying of concealed weapons is directly responsible for the majority of the homicides. During the whole of my experience as coroner I recall but very few instances in which the homicide, or even the suicide, was deliberate, in nearly all cases it being the result of sudden passion and would not have occurred had not the slayer been armed."

On July 1, 1912, the Chicago city council passed an ordinance regulating the sale of firearms and other deadly weapons. The main provisions of the ordinance are as follows:

1. Dealers to be licensed by the mayor.
2. No weapons to be sold to minors, lunatics, habitual drunkards, or persons convicted of any crime.
3. All purchasers of weapons shall make and sign applications for the same on blanks to be furnished by the department of police to each licensed dealer.
4. Dealers compelled to forward application with a report of the sale to the superintendent of police.
5. Every dealer is required to keep a register of all weapons sold which shall show the number of the weapons, name, residence and age of purchaser, description of weapon and the purpose for which it was obtained.

An amendment to the New York firearms ordinance which is now before the committee on laws and legislation of the board of aldermen provides that any person may procure firearms solely for the protection of his household or premises upon making application to and receiving the permission of a city magistrate or the police commissioner or certain authorized subordinates of the latter.

Frederick Rex.[2]

◆

Firearms—Columbus, Ohio.—The regulation of the sale of firearms and other dangerous weapons is provided in an ordinance approved May 7, 1912.[1] No person can sell within the city any pistol, revolver, derringer, bowie knife, dirk or other weapon of like character without a license. After securing the license, no person can sell these weapons to another person unless that one has a permit from the director of safety to purchase it.

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[1] Indianapolis, Indiana.

[2] Chicago, Illinois.

Application for a selling license must be made to the mayor, and must contain the full name and residence, if an individual, or the name and residence of each member or officer, if a firm, and the place of business. The license fee is $5. Every day before 12 o'clock noon, a report with numerous details, must be made to the director of public safety of every sale during the preceding twenty-four hours.

For the person desiring to carry weapons, permits are issued by the director of public safety. Applicants for these permits must give name, address, age, height, weight, complexion and nationality. The period of the permit is one year, and the fee is $1. Permits are to be refused to all persons who have been convicted of crime, vagabonds and minors.

CHARLES WELLES REEDER.

⁂

Industrial Education.—The modification of our school system to meet the vocational needs of all who are able to profit by the instruction offered is the most striking tendency in school matters, especially in city schools.

The states of Massachusetts, New York, Maine, Wisconsin, New Jersey and Ohio have adopted advanced legislation while Indiana, Illinois, Michigan and Pennsylvania are considering the subject with certainty of early action. A special commission appointed under a legislative act will report in Indiana in January, 1913, while several interested associations have been promoting the subject in Illinois.

The movement for industrial and trade schools began in 1905 in Massachusetts when a special commission was appointed to investigate the need and means of industrial education. Their report in 1906 resulted in legislation establishing a state board of industrial education and providing for the establishment by cities and towns of industrial and trade schools under separate boards of education. Wisconsin, in 1907, enabled cities to establish trade schools. The following year New York passed an act to provide for such schools under the regular school boards but with an advisory board representing local trades and industries. New Jersey, in 1908, created an investigating commission which reported in 1909. In 1910, Ohio passed an act enabling city school authorities to compel all children between fourteen and sixteen who had gone to work, to return to the day schools for at least five hours of instruction, wherever they had provided means for vocational education. Wisconsin went further in 1911 and required all children between fourteen and sixteen who are employed, to attend school at least five hours per week. At the same time they set up a complete system of industrial schools under separate management by a state board and by local boards consisting of two employees, two employers and the city superintendent of schools.

Massachusetts in the meantime had modified her system of separate schools so as to permit industrial schools to be established as a part of the regular school system or if the regular schools do not take it up, then the separate board may be formed.

State aid is granted in Massachusetts, Wisconsin, New Jersey, New York and Maine and it is proposed for both Indiana and Illinois. The amount varies from $500 for the first teacher and $250 for others in New York, to one-half the entire cost of maintenance in Massachusetts.

The distinct features in all of this legislation are:

1. State control through a state board and deputies.
2. State aid to approved schools.

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[1] Ordinance 26498, approved May 7, 1912.

3. The schools are controlled in New York, New Jersey and Maine by the regular schools. In Wisconsin there is a separate system and in Massachusetts it may be either.

4. Compulsory education for all children between fourteen and sixteen who are not employed, and the tendency is for all who are employed between fourteen and sixteen to be required to return for further instructions.

⁂

Garbage in Columbus, Ohio.—New ordinances providing for the collection of garbage and rubbish have been passed.[1] Garbage has been defined as "any refuse accumulation of animal, fruit or vegetable matter, and any matter of substance used in the preparation for cooking, dealing in or storage of meats and fowls, fruits and vegetables, but not including corn husks and corn cobs."

Rubbish includes, "all discarded and useless matters, such as paper, straw, excelsior, rags, bottles, old clothes, corn husks and corn cobs, old shoes, tin cans . . . . . grass trimmed from lawns, brush from trimming shrubs and trees and mattresses. . . . . . "

Separate receptacles for these materials must be provided, and only certain things put in them. Garbage cans must be water-tight, of galvanized iron or other metal, with tight-fitting lid, and not over two bushels in capacity. Ash cans must be lined with or constructed of metal, have a water proof covering, and be in capacity of two bushels. Rubbish cans may be made of wood or metal, but must hold the contents without leaking. Their capacity is the same as the ordinary barrel. All the cans must be placed on the lots, not in alleys or streets, convenient for city employees to remove. CHARLES W. REEDER.

⁂

Taxing the Weeds in Los Angeles.—Twice a year in August and April, in accordance with an ordinance of July, 1912, owners, agents and persons in possession of property must remove from their sidewalks, property, lands and lots all noxious weeds and vegetation, except such as are cultivated for use, ornament, food or fuel, all dead trees, tin cans, rubbish, refuse and waste material of all kinds which may endanger or injure neighboring property, or the health or welfare of the residents of the vicinity. Otherwise, the board of public works will remove all or any of these detriments to civic beauty and hygiene, and to insure payment for their removal and collection, assess the cost, together with 25 per cent thereon to be added to cover interest, upon the property.

This assessment is known as a "weed tax." All weed taxes unpaid on the last Monday of November of each year become delinquent and 10 per cent is added to the amount of the tax when thus delinquent and a delinquent list, with an accompanying alphabetical index of names is published once a week for three successive weeks in a Los Angeles paper, with a notice appended declaring that unless these taxes are paid in twenty-eight days from the date of the appearance of the first notice, the property on which they are assessed will be sold to the city. As costs of such publication, 50 cents is collected on each separate piece of land separately assessed.

All property delinquent on which the weed taxes and ensuing penalties have not been paid on the day fixed in the published notice, is sold to the city, and, if not redeemed within a year, a deed is drawn up conveying to the city the absolute title to the property.

To redeem the property within the year after it is sold to the city, the owner pays the weed taxes, penalties and costs due thereon and interest on the same at the rate of 7 per cent, all unpaid weed taxes assessed since the sale and also certain penalties varying with the time after the sale such payments are made.

ETHEL CLELAND.

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[1] Ordinance 26158 (garbage), approved May 13, 1912, and Ordinance 26159 (rubbish) approved May 7, 1912.

Traffic Regulations.—The traffic regulations of Columbus, Ohio, have been extended by two ordinances, considered by many people, to be very drastic. One of these new regulations is aimed at automobiles. The ordinance[1] provides that all vehicles going in the same direction with streets cars, within the porporate limits of the city, shall not pass between the street car and the curb while passengers are getting off or on the cars, until the vehicle has first come to a full stop. The second regulation[2] is that no vehicle, except baby buggies, boys' sleds and play wagons, shall be used on the streets between the hours of sunset and sunrise unless it carries a light so arranged on the left side that it shows white in front and red in the rear.[3]

✣

Dogs, Ordinances Regulating.—In September, 1912, James S. McInerny, Chicago's prosecuting attorney, in a communication to Mayor Harrison called attention to the vast increase in the number of persons bitten by dogs during the past five years. The number bitten during the first eight months of 1912 was 1377. Those who were victims of bites from dogs during the entire year of 1908 were 424 in number. The increase for the uncompleted year of 1912 over the whole of 1908 is 225 per cent and undoubtedly will exceed 325 per cent when the figures are complete for the entire twelve calendar months of the year. It is estimated that 75 per cent of the total number of bites show evidence of rabies.

That the dog is beginning to be considered a menace to public health and personal safety is shown by the large proportion of cities which have passed new ordinances regulating their possession. Chief among these may be instanced the ordinances proposed or passed in the cities of Chicago, Detroit and San Francisco.

In addition to the section requiring the muzzling of dogs, which is a common provision in all city ordinances on the subject, the Chicago ordinance as introduced in the city council compels every "veterinarian or other person who discovers any dog or other animal to be suffering with rabies" to report the fact to the commissioner of health. A further provision makes it unlawful for any owner of a female dog to allow the same to run at large while in heat. The Detroit ordinance differs from the various ordinances passed in other cities by prohibiting the "harboring or keeping of any dog which by loud, frequent or habitual barking, yelping or howling shall cause serious annoyance to the neighborhood or to people passing to and fro upon the streets."

The San Francisco ordinance declares that "every dog not kept within a sufficient enclosure or led and controlled by a line, rope or chain, or not effectually muzzled so as to prevent such dog from biting persons or animals" shall be regarded as a public menace and impounded.

Frederick Rex.[4]

✣

Special Districts.—In 1911 the state legislature of North Dakota enacted a law[5] which provides that "any city shall have power to create sewer, paving and water main districts and districts for the purpose of grading, graveling, curbing, planting trees, constructing grass plots, sowing grass seed, constructing gutters, or for the purpose of making one or more of the improvements herein mentioned, and maintaining the same within the limits of such city, which districts shall be consecutively numbered." To pay for such improvements special assessments may be made.[6]

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[1] Ordinance 26699, approved July 15, 1912.

[2] Ordinance 26687, approved September 30, 1912.

[3] Information on Columbus, Ohio, ordinance was furnished by Charles Wells Reader, Ohio State University Library.

[4] Chicago, Illinois.

[5] Laws 1911, chap. 70.

[6] From I. A. Acker.

Dance Halls in Des Moines, Iowa.—A rather interesting experiment with the ever present dance hall problem has been undertaken in Des Moines. General regulations for public dance halls have been adopted forbidding certain objectionable dance customs. The enforcement of these regulations and other city regulations is put in the hands of two peace officers working under the direction of the city and paid by the city, one of these officers a man and the other a woman. The dance halls pay into the city treasury a sum sufficient to defray these expenses. The results so far seem to be very good.[1]

⁂

Efficiency Bureau of San Francisco.—Upon recommendation of the civil service commission and the efficiency committee of the supervisors, the board of supervisors adopted ordinance 1958, approved July 9, 1912, creating a bureau of efficiency. The civil service commission will direct the work of this bureau so as to enable it to carry out the provisions of section 14 of article xiii of the charter, reading as follows:

> The commissioners shall investigate the enforcement of the provisions of this article, and if its rules, and the action of the examiners herein provided for, and the conduct and action of the appointees in the classified service in the city and county and may inquire as to the nature, tenure and compensation of all places in the public service thereof.

The mayor, auditor, the chairman of the finance committee of the supervisors and the chairman of the committee on public efficiency and civil service of the supervisors, constitute an advisory commission on efficiency.

E. R. Zion has been appointed director of the bureau and instructed to tabulate all positions under the city government, showing the title, nature and duties of each position, name of person holding same, salary tenure and any other information desirable. In other words, it is proposed that the efficiency bureau take stock of all services being rendered the city.

Each department is respectfully requested to furnish this information in such form as may be determined by the director.

The efficiency bureau has also been instructed to facilitate the use of the new forms for salary demands and warrants recently approved by the auditor. The civil service commission and the board of works are using them for the present month and other departments are expected to use them as soon as a convenient form can be agreed upon.

II. JUDICIAL DECISIONS[2]

De Facto Officer.—A doctrine of importance for the protection both of cities and of their citizens was applied in *Oakland Paving Company v. Donovan*, California.[3] The defendant there sought to escape payment of a paving assessment on the ground that the acting superintendent of streets, who performed an essential part of the work of levying the assessments, was without lawful authority in the premises. It appeared that the superintendent of streets was absent on a vacation at the time the assessment was made and that there was no such officer known to the law as acting superintendent of streets nor any provision of law for a substitute in the absence or inability of the superintendent. The court nevertheless held that since the acting superintendent was in full possession of the office in the absence of the superintendent, was performing that officer's duties within the scope of this office, holding himself out and reputed to be legally exercising these duties, in charge of the books and records and recognized by the public as the officer he represented himself to be, his acts were valid.

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[1] From Hon. James R. Hanna, mayor.

[2] Prepared by Richard W. Montague, Esq., Portland, Ore.

[3] 126 Pac. Rep. 388.

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Rights of Pedestrians in the Street.—In *Connolly v. City of Spokane* (Washington),[1] the city was held liable for an injury caused by trap doors in the sidewalk, though the unfortunate passer could not tell whether they sank beneath his weight and caught him or were opened from below without warning. The court, it is respectfully submitted, might properly have gone a good deal further and held that any accident traceable to trap doors in a sidewalk should be regarded in much the same light as if the person responsible for them had put a spring gun or a bear trap there. No community with the slightest regard for the rights of the public would tolerate such obstructions in a busy thoroughfare for a moment, and yet it is not uncommon to see a densely crowded street blocked by them, while a couple of lesiurely moving shipping clerks handle a few packages of freight. No one ever appears to think of raising any protest, but there is still hope that we may eventually come to recognize that pedestrians are not wholly without rights in the streets. Judgments for damages against cities, not generally in accordance with sound policy, certainly find their justification in such a case as this.

✻

Use of the Initiative.—The unfortunate conflict which frequently arises between the necessity of maintaining an important general rule and the desirability of overlooking unimportant errors in its application is illustrated in *Palmberg v. Kinney* (Oregon).[2] The law for the exercise of the power of law-making by the initiative in the city of Astoria (as elsewhere in Oregon) provides that a true copy of the title and text of any measure so to be submitted shall be printed, and, in the particular case, shall be distributed by pamphlet among the voters. The prime importance of such a provision, and of rigorous adherence to it, are obvious; without it the voter could never be sure of the actual form and substance of the measure upon which he was voting, and opportunity would be given at every hand for intolerable mischiefs in the alteration of pending measures. Yet it is not without a certain sense of disproportion of cause to consequence that we see a measure, providing for public improvements of prime importance to the city, which had been carried, by a considerable majority, set aside and all that had been done under it declared void because, in lieu of one of the commissioners under the act, the name of another (who had been selected in case the first refused to accept) was substituted in the pamphlet spoken of. A most lame and impotent conclusion we can but think; yet if the court had yielded to the temptation to "let a hard case make bad law" their hands would have been tied next time by a rule which might have permitted a material, perhaps ultimately a fraudulent, alteration, to be effective. Led thus to the brink of the question as to the wisdom of a jurisprudence based on precedents, and thence of the possibility of governing special cases by general rules, we are plainly getting out of bounds.

✻

Indicting a City.—The current dictum of high political authority that guilt is personal does not appear to run in Kentucky, where the city of Henderson has been indicted for maintaining a nuisance in the form of a smokestack which emits such volumes of smoke and cinders that homes and residences in the neighborhood cannot be kept clean. Burke's aphorism that you cannot indict a whole nation does not apply to cities, it seems. One wonders if the grand jury and prosecuting officer who drew and returned this indictment had let their imaginations run to the curious effects of a conviction. As a matter of fact the tendency to use criminal process for all sorts of purposes appears to be keeping even pace with the distinguished inefficiency which is charged upon it for its essential and primary purposes. Hardly any regulative law is passed nowadays without a criminal sanction. A recent compilation of the laws of a western state contains a list several pages long in the finest print of these criminal regulations in laws that are not primarily criminal. It is to remember a very unflattering verse:

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[1] 126 Pac. Rep. 408.

[2] 127 Pac. Rep. 32.

The cynic devil in his blood
. . . .
That bids him flout the law he makes,
  That bids him make the law he flouts,
Till dazed by many doubts he wakes
  The drumming guns—that have no doubts.

◆

Shade Trees.—A recent decision of the appellate division of the New York supreme court affirming a judgment against a construction company which had cut down a number of shade trees, of damages at $500 per tree and $1000 general punitive damages, will find sympathetic approval in the breast of many a citizen who has not arrived in time to stay the ruthless hand of that kind of improvement. Where, as often happens, however, it is the city authorities themselves who have removed the shade trees there is little chance for redress, though as a matter of law public authorities in most states have not the right to remove or mutilate trees arbitrarily or unnecessarily. Much less have public service corporations, such as telephone and light companies, the right, except as it has been granted them by the state or municipality, to mutilate, damage, or destroy shade trees. Yet where the shade trees stand in the way neither law nor right do save them in most cases; they often interfere with the public services which the public demands, and are doomed, like the beauties of the green field in the shadow of municipal encroachment. Much may be done by intelligent city planning which will find a place for them apart from the wires, and where their roots can get moisture and air; something by the ultimate bestowal of the wires under ground.

◆

Grade Crossings.—In the *Municipal Journal* appears an interesting summary of a paper by Charles H. English, city solicitor of Erie, read at a convention of Pennsylvania cities, discussing the grade crossing laws of the various states. The statutes discussed fall into two classes: New Jersey, Illinois, and Ohio, vesting in the local authorities the power to deal with the question; Connecticut, Massachusetts, and New York giving jurisdiction to a central commission and leaving to the local bodies merely the right to invoke the action of the commission. The latter plan is incomparably more effective. The experience and information which a commission acquires soon enables it to deal effectively with a problem which is quite beyond the competence of the ordinary local authorities. Nearly a thousand grade crossings have been abolished in the latter three states by their commissions, according to Mr. English's statistics.

◆

Protection of Trees in Columbus, Ohio.[1]—An ordinance[2] approved June 24, 1912, is designed to protect the trees of the city. No person is allowed to hitch a horse or other animal to a tree. No corporation is allowed to attach to a tree a rope or wire. When paving around a tree, at least 4 square feet of ground must be left to give free entrance of water and air to the roots. Guards must be placed around trees when new buildings are being put up in close proximity to them. All wires running through trees must be protected so as not to injure the branches. No conduit can be laid nearer than 1½ feet to a tree. The forestry department has full power to remove dead, diseased, or dangerous trees, to trim, to spray, to replace and to do dental work on them. The department can give written permission to violate the above provisions. Carolina poplars cannot be planted within the city. A fine of $50 and a workhouse sentence of sixty days is provided for violations of this ordinance.

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[1] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. i, p. 470.

[2] Ordinance 26637, approved June 24, 1912.

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The franchise tax act of Delaware[1] provides that if a corporation shall fail for two consecutive years to pay its franchise tax the charter of such corporation, and all powers conferred by law upon it, shall be inoperative and void. The Supreme Court of Delaware in a recent case (*Harned v. Beacon Hill Real Estate Co.*, 84 Atlantic, 229), held that a corporation whose charter has been thus forfeited may have three years in which to wind up its affairs. If it fails to do so within three years its creditors and stockholders may at any time thereafter secure the appointment of trustees or receivers who shall make a final settlement of the unfinished business of the corporation.

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[1] 21 Del. Laws C. 166.

DEPARTMENT OF REPORTS AND DOCUMENTS

I. CRITICAL AND INTERPRETATIVE

EDITED BY JOHN A. FAIRLIE

Professor of Political Science, University of Illinois

Recent City Planning Reports.—The time has passed when it is necessary to explain or to plead for city planning, in addressing persons who take a live and intelligent interest in municipal affairs. It is of more moment to know what city planning does. Yet, it may be, that in observing this, by examining several recently issued city plan reports,[1] we shall incidently come upon the best explanation and the strongest argument for this movement which lately has been sweeping the country. For there is hardly now an important city, and scarcely an enterprising town, which has not had painted a picture of its future possible beauty and efficiency—gratifying, no doubt, to local pride, but gaining its larger interest from the inspiration and courage which it locally gives. Each picture develops civic consciousness and a community ideal, and the citizens are expected to "follow the gleam." Usually, and with varying degrees of fidelity and procrastination, they do follow it. That they do so at all means much for urban development.

The most recently issued city plan reports, those of the preceding twelve months, are the ones from Binghamton, N. Y., Dallas, Seattle, Hartford and Colorado Springs. Their geographical distribution is as complete as could have been devised, and the significance which attaches to that fact is obvious. "The most recently issued" are chosen for mention here because even they are as many as can be reviewed in an article of moderate length. Furthermore, since the art ot the science of city planning is a growing one, still undergoing rapid development, these reports may be expected to be the most advanced and interesting.

It so happens, as one must immediately note, that the year's city plan reports not only represent in their distribution far separated parts of the United States, but that they deal with different sorts of towns—an eastern manufacturing community and a western seaport, a "new" town and one of the oldest cities of the United States; commercial and industrial cities, and a health and pleasure city. Also they are representative of four different city planners, and they may be considered as the more truly representative of their authors because each is the work of an individual, not a commission. All these conditions result in a variety of view point, of emphasis and of manner of presentation which makes comparison of the reports very difficult. Yet in certain common features it is instructive to note likenesses and contrasts.

When it is said that the reports

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[1] Better Binghamton. A Report to the Mercantile-Press Club of Binghamton, N. Y. By Charles Mulford Robinson. Published by Mercantile-Press Club, December 1911. 140 pages. Many photographs, map and diagrams.

A City Plan for Dallas. By George E. Kessler. Issued by the Park Board. 40 pages, to which is added the annual report of the Park Board. Illustrated with photographs, maps and diagrams.

Plan of Seattle. Report of the Municipal Plans Commission, submitting report of Virgil G. Bogue, engineer. 235 pages. Many photographs, maps and diagrams.

A Plan of the City of Hartford. Preliminary Report by Carrere and Hastings, advisory architects, to the Commission on the City Plan of the City of Hartford, Conn. Published by the Commission on the City Plan. 117 pages. Illustrated with photographs, maps and diagrams.

A General Plan for the Improvement of Colorado Springs. Report submitted to the Department of Public Works and Property by Charles Mulford Robinson. Published by the Department of Public Works and Property Colorado Springs. Illustrated with photographs, maps and diagrams.

mentioned are those of the last twelve months, there must be emphasis on the fact that they are the published reports. Others have been prepared, but not made public. Of the five reports named, only to those for Binghamton and Colorado Springs has been given the dignity of a stiff cover. This is regrettable and difficult to understand. The others certainly have cost enough to merit permanent binding; they are designed to have longer life and usefulness than are usually associated with paper bound pamphlets; and their subject is of an importance that would seem to justify the light extra cost of better binding. But if most of the reports are poorly covered, it must not be supposed that they are meanly presented. All are profusely illustrated, with photographs, diagrams and maps. The Seattle book, indeed, is a volume of 225 large pages to which are added a score of maps and diagrams, folded in at the back.

Of the five reports, two were made to city plan commissions (Hartford and Seattle); one was made to the city administration (Colorado Springs); one to the park board (Dallas); and one to an organization of business men (Binghamton). It is notable, then, that four out of the five reports were officially authorized and financed and hence, even before adoption, were official documents. The fact testifies to a long step forward that has given much added authority to city planning. The condition is further emphasized by the fact that in two out of the five cities there were plan commissions, as parts of the city government, created by charter amendment for the very purpose of securing and carrying out such plans. If, then, the reports of the last year did nothing else, they would at least bear testimony to the hold which the city planning movement has secured upon public opinion in our cities. City planners have gained a recognition something like that given to sewage, water and paving experts, and to park designers. To that extent they are becoming measurably independent of those propagandist and educational campaigns which were so marked a feature of the earlier days of American city planning. This revelation is perhaps the most important feature of the year's reports.

With these comments, there is said all that can be said concerning the reports as a whole. The peculiar problems offered by the widely scattered and very different kinds of cities, and the manner of their solution or consideration by the different men retained, can be brought out only by reviewing the studies individually. Necessarily these reviews can be only fragmentary, and the reader will realize that the author suffers a rather ludicrous embarrassment in having to speak in part of his own work.

Taking up the books in the order in which they were received, the report for Binghamton comes first. It is divided into four main sections: I, The Survey contains some very valuable old maps and pictures illustrate this portion of the report, and it is—so far as the writer recalls—the first instance in which an American city plan report has emphasized that feature upon which the English town planners, under the lead of Professor Geddes, have laid such stress—the preliminary survey. Part II, in which is stated the problem, confesses that the problem of Binghamton in spite of the city's unusual beauty of setting and the consequent temptation to emphasize aesthetics, is primarily that of an industrial town.

The third section considers elementary needs, street plan, parks, playgrounds and pleasure drives. The backwardness of Binghamton in street paving, in sidewalk construction and in the removal of overhead wires are typical matters of discussion and suggestion under elementary needs. Under street plan there are proposed a number of improvements which must make inevitably for larger municipal efficiency and the greater convenience of traffic. It is in this connection that we read, as indicating the need for city planning where cities have been permitted to grow haphazardly, that of the seven bridges which span the rivers that bisect Binghamton, only two have direct street connections at both ends, that there is not a single thoroughfare which crosses the town directly, and that the only one which goes from end to end of the city's longer diameter describes a curve in so doing, suffers a sharp break at a critical point and, incidentally, bears several names. The street changes here proposed are not radical, and not very expensive, but they would straighten out a jumble that promises speedy congestion in the business district of Binghamton, and would open up large desirable residence sections by shortening the means of access to them. Definite industrial districts are developed in the plan and some needed advice is given as to subdivisions for homes. Under the heading of parks, playgrounds and pleasure drives, plans are mapped out for improving the river banks and for making them serve the recreational needs of a working population. An athletic field is planned in close proximity to an industrial section, and suggestions are offered for the betterment of the city's present hilltop parks.

The final chapter on ways and means, is a consideration of the always pertinent question, How can the recommendations be carried out? The author shows what can be done by simply new or better ordinances, what matters call for charter amendment, what can be properly delegated to private effort, and what—surprisingly little after these deductions—rightly demand an issue of bonds. The Springfield *Republican* made this curious, but perhaps significant, remark in the course of a long editorial on the Binghamton report: "The report is as evidence of the city's enterprise and foresight, as excellent a bit of municipal advertising as anything could be—except the actual accomplishment of what is recommended."

The next report to be received was that of Dallas, Texas. Its crude cover belies the excellence of the presentation within, where text, photographs and several folded maps and diagrams unite in an admirable record of the plan evolved. The Dallas report, though entitled "a city plan," and dealing with a city more than twice the size of Binghamton, is only about one-third as long as the Binghamton report. It is characterized by few words but by good diagrams and drawings, and it places particular, and possibly disproportionate, emphasis on park development, if we stretch that phrase to include playgrounds and boulevards. In a report addressed to the city's park board, this emphasis, however, was probably necessary. Yet it is true that the whole manner of the report's presentation witnesses to the circumstance that its author is a landscape architect and park designer.

It must not be supposed, however, from saying this, that Mr. Kessler has overlooked strictly city plan problems, or has failed to discuss them with illuminating comments and to offer valuable solutions. The very opening words of the Dallas report state well a fact which enthusiastic laymen too seldom appreciate, viz., that a plan for an existing city must be one, "not for the building of the city, but one formulating recommendations for rebuilding along broader lines."

The truth of these statements as to the Dallas report may be convincingly illustrated by the subjects it touches upon. These are the building of levee which shall serve the triple purpose of providing flood protection, a city harbor, and additional space for railroad terminals; the building of a belt line railroad, a union station and a local freight terminal; the location of a civic center; the elimination of grade crossings; the correction of the present street system and an extension of streets; the provision of additional playgrounds, and the construction of a comprehensive system of parks, parkways and boulevards. To run over these titles is to realize how much it may mean to Dallas to have public attention directed to these big subjects, and to have presented to her enterprising citizens, though it be in a sketchy manner, schemes for handling wisely the many problems involved.

Seattle's plan comes next on the list. Perhaps it is not too much to say that this is the most exhaustive and thorough city planning report that has been issued. Yet it was prepared in a year. The engineering work alone cost about $24,000; the city planner was paid over $17,000; and the printing of a very limited edition of the book cost $2500. The report's total cost came to $50,000, to which must be added a quite exceptional amount of unpaid local coöperation. While these figures, which are taken from the published report, have little reliability as a measure of its actual value, they show the earnestness with which Seattle took up the city planning project and explain why the Seattle plan cannot fairly be compared with the other reports published during the year. Perhaps, however, it is proper to observe that although $50,000, is a relatively large sum to appropriate for this work, it really is not much for a city of almost a quarter million inhabitants to pay for a carefully thought out plan covering an area of one hundred and fifty square miles and anticipating a future population of upwards of a million. If Seattle has secured, as it seems to have done, a plan which efficiently does these things, it has surely obtained much for its money.

Mr. Bogue, the author of the "Plan of Seattle," is a civil engineer, who has not been heretofore identified with city planning work. It is no surprise, therefore, to find engineering features of the Seattle plan as strongly emphasized as were park features in Mr. Kessler's. In fact, discussion of harbor, port and water front, of railroad facilities, and of arterial highways, absorbs two-thirds of the text—which is long—and practically all of the nineteen large maps folded at the back of the book.

First of all, the report takes up arterial highways. The conclusion was reached that "the lines of heavy travel in Seattle would, in the main, always be north and south." The site of the city is notoriously rugged, and yet careful surveys showed the possibility of laying out very convenient arterial streets with grades seldom exceeding three per cent. The opinion has been expressed that the location of these is one of the most valuable contributions of the Seattle plan. Next is considered the civic center. For this a very elaborate scheme was evolved. The form suggested for it was an ellipse, penetrated by great avenues converging toward a central shaft or monument. In the arcs between the converging avenues of which one broadly parked Central Avenue should lead to the Union Station, were to be the public buildings. From the proposed location, which is a natural traffic center, the land falls away on every side, so that the buildings would be "visible from all the environing hills and from the harbor and Puget Sound."

After the civic center, seven pages only are devoted to park improvements; but this subject had been treated in a preceding report. There follow a few pages on municipal decorations, in which the subjects of street intersections, concourses and building height are considered, and then comes the long discussion of harbor, port and waterfront. The following quotations suggest the importance attached to this portion of the Report, and the earnestness with which its problems have been worked out:

"Commercially speaking, when a city ceases preparation for the future, it ceases to grow. . . . Seattle's greatest commercial asset is her harbor . . . Every judicious investment in harbor improvements should tend to decrease rather than to increase the tax rate." Consideration of the port is divided by the author into ten sections for the purposes of adequate consideration and discussion. The works proposed for it look forward many years for complete accomplishment and to the expenditure of vast sums. If carried out as proposed, there is no question that Seattle would have exceptional commercial efficiency.

The final discussion, transportation, takes up steam railroads and ferries. In a "closing word" it is stated that the plan, with the exception of six comparatively small items, which are named, "need not be followed on precise lines in every instance, but should be deviated from only when detail studies preparatory to construction show minor changes to be necessary, and any deviation should not be of such nature or extent as to jeopardize the value and harmony of the plan as a whole, or any part thereof."

It should be added, that one of the most interesting portions of the Seattle report is the introductory statement by the local commission. Here is concisely given the history of the movement which led up to the making of so elaborate a study, and the legislation which was enacted to provide both efficient machinery and sufficient money. The commission itself, it may be briefly said, was authorized by a charter amendment which received the largest majority that had even been cast for an amendment to the Seattle charter. It is composed of twenty-one citizens. To finance the project, there was created a municipal plans commission fund, secured by a tax levy of one-quarter of a mill in the year 1910. It was required that expenses should not exceed the proceeds of the levy and should cease entirely on September 30, 1911.

It is a pity that more city plan reports do not contain, when published, so admirable a presentation of the steps by which they were secured, and so clear a statement of the means devised to give effectiveness to the plans and to pay for them. For these are matters upon which many cities are now earnestly seeking information.

The report for Hartford, though quite modestly issued, is a well illustrated pamphlet of something over a hundred pages. It is addressed to "the commission on the city plan of the city of Hartford," for, as the foreword states, "Hartford was one of the first, if not the first, American city to have a permanent city plan commission." To this report there attaches also special and pathetic interest, from the fact that one of its authors—and he whose work it mainly was—was the victim of a fatal accident the day after he signed it, following its painstaking critical review. In an introductory note to the Report, Frederick L. Ford observes: "The city plan of the city of Hartford by Messrs. Carrére and Hastings was Mr. Carrére's valedictory to the world and it will remain his crowning work in city planning."

The Hartford report differs from most others that have been issued in containing in its early pages a somewhat abstract discussion of an ideal city plan and a thesis on taxation and the regulation of building construction for the common good. The explanation of this, if explanation is needed, is to be found in the author's strongly expressed appreciation "that the mere study of the plan of a city, and the making of pictures and maps, is but a very small part of the problem which confronts every American city." The larger problem is to secure a broader vision and coöperative spirit which will express itself in communal action. "While the idea," the report reminds us, "of a common life for a common purpose goes back to the beginning of things, real organization with regard to essentials was very slow of development." Even in Paris, "no attempt was made at municipal lighting, or any definite ordinances attempting even a system of private lighting, until the time of Napoleon the First." Almost within the memory of living men, Benjamin Franklin organized tramps into street cleaners. Hence it is not surprising that the development of the plan of cities, of methods of taxation, and of many other matters fundamental to the public good have been "either neglected or treated separately and without coördination." To call attention to the need of such coördination and to its possibilities is the first purpose of the Hartford report. It urges that taxes upon land and improvements be based upon the property's income bearing capacity.

It is clear that a city plan report which devotes about one-quarter of its length to such general thoughts as these, has an interest and individuality quite its own, and which is independent of city plan suggestions of the ordinary type. These must, however, be noted. They deal first with the central portion of the city. Here there are considered a connection of the state buildings, grouped in and around Bushnell Park, with the growing municipal group on Main Street, a dignified mall or parkway being proposed for the purpose; a re-arrangement of the railroad station and lowering of the railroad grade through the center of the city, so that streets may pass over instead of under the tracks, and the provision of means of traffic communication through Bushnell Park, so that it may prove less of a barrier, to arrest the city's development along natural and desirable lines.

There is a careful discussion of the street changes which would be beneficial in various sections of the city, and a plan is worked out for a new industrial district, and for the housing of its workmen. This district is not to be a substitute for present factory centers but is to supplement them. There are proposed broad new radial avenues, to run southwestward and southeastward from the capital, and inner and outer boulevards that shall tie scattered park units into a park system. A separate chapter is devoted to discussion of the improvement of the park and Connecticut rivers; and in a final chapter many general matters are touched upon—such as the lighting apparatus, billboards, trees, traffic regulations, etc. Here is made the interesting proposal—novel for America—of "a remission of taxes, not to exceed a given sum in any one instance, and running for a limited period of years," as "an encouragement to citizens for the proper development of the various improvements controlled by private interests, and also for proper maintenance of private property, grounds and gardens."

The report, taken as a whole, lacks systematic arrangement and shows a want of what may be best described as careful editing. But it is a very conscientious study of a city's improvement needs and possibilities, and that is worth much more than is the manner of presentation.

The study of Colorado Springs, which comes latest from the press, is so largely devoted to consideration of the streets that, to its merit or otherwise, it probably conforms more nearly than most reports to the popular idea of a "city plan." There are, in all, five chapters or sections. The first discusses the steam railroads, because possible changes of route and the location of a union station must affect the street plan of the city. The second takes up the street plan in detail —"a conventional checkerboard, as commonplace as Philadelphia's or Chicago's"—and suggests how it could be redeemed, or at any rate improved, at low cost. In the third chapter there is detailed study of the development of the streets—this supplementing a report on street parking for Colorado Springs which the author had made seven years before and which he states is to be considered a part of the present report. The fourth section takes up the city's recreational provision, attempting to point out how the social efficiency of the present very large park holdings could be increased. The report is fully illustrated, and Colorado Springs proved neither so large or complex a subject that it could not be handled with considerable completeness. The report gathers interest, also, from the fact that it adds one more instance to the proportionately large number of cases in which the commission form of government has resulted in prompt orders for city plan studies—a fact which is significant of efficiency, no doubt, on both sides.

Though the year's published city plan reports have now all been noted, this brief summary would be incomplete, did it not also mention John Nolen's book *Replanning Small Cities*.[1] For in this attractively issued volume, brought out during the past year, there are reprinted the reports which its author has made for half a dozen widely scattered little cities. All of these reports have been issued before, by themselves—some of them a number of years ago; but their convenient republication in a single volume attracts interest anew to them and fairly entitles them to a mention here. Moreover, Mr. Nolen opens and closes his volume with chapters which are new and which call very pertinent attention to fundamental similarities in the problems, opportunities and duties of all towns. Says Mr. Nolen:

> In the first place, certain things are indispensable for every city—suitable streets, thoroughfares, public buildings, homes, and an adequate number of playgrounds, parks and open spaces. All these must be had sooner or later. It is not a question of getting them or of not getting them. It is merely a question of *when* . . . . Secondly, it should be kept in mind that cities must choose usually between one form of expenditure or another. The people of a city may prefer to pay the direct and indirect cost of epidemics like typhoid fever rather than increase the outlay for water and sewers and other forms of sanitation. They may elect to pay the bills resulting from an inadequate street system for traffic and the inconvenient circulation of men and goods, rather than make the loans and annual appropriations required by the adoption of a more up-to-date method of locating and improving streets and highways. But does it pay? . . . . It costs only $800 to educate a normal boy in the Boston schools for twelve years, or less than $70 a year. On the other hand, it costs $400 to take care of a bad boy in a Massachusetts reformatory for one year. Which is cheaper? . . . . In the third place, ... the essential question is not one of cost, the attempt to balance the expense of better planning against increased revenues resulting from it. At bottom the question is whether real values in public welfare are to be had from this sort of city planning . . . .

The towns of which Mr. Nolen presents studies in his book are Roanoke, Va., San Diego, Calif., Montclair, N. J., Glen Ridge, N. J., Reading, Pa., and Madison, Wis.

Finally, this years reports are of value in giving conclusive evidence that town and city planning are no longer understood to be—what in the fact they never really were—a designing simply of impressive civic centers and the like monumental and costly features. City planning has come to be recognized as something much broader in scope, much closer to everyday problems, much nearer to the lives of the people.

Charles Mulford Robinson.[2]

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The New York Billboard Situation.—For many years increasing general animosity has been manifested against the extensions of the billboard service of the country, which have undoubtedly become intrusions. The feeling which has caused more than eighty cities to undertake some form of legislation against the billboard has its root in the increasing estimation of the American people for the value of natural scenery and of orderly city beauty. It is lamentable to have to say that usually these legislative attempts have been failures because the billboard man is as yet firmly entrenched behind his constitutional right to destroy values so long as he keeps on property which he owns or has leased.

But another view of the evil has more encouraging features for those who believe it is not right to "sell the eyes of the public," as Commissioner Tompkins has recently and rather aptly expressed it. The billboard men are generally law breakers and pay no attention whatever to local enactments, unless forced. A strong presentation of this phase of the trouble is included in "A Report on an Investigation of Billboard Advertising in the City of New York," made by Raymond B. Fosdick, until recently commissioner of accounts, and transmitted to Mayor Gaynor August 27, 1912.

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[1] *Replanning Small Cities*. Six Typical Studies. By John Nolen. Published by B. W. Huebsch, New York, 1912. See National Municipal Review, vol. 1, p. 754.

[2] Rochester, N. Y.

In this admirable report Mr. Fosdick presented the approximate details on billboard advertising in New York. He says that there are approximately 3700 billboards in the city, of which fully 25 per cent are double-deckers, making about 4600 facings for advertisements, and including approximately 3,800,000 square feet of billboard "beauty" in New York.

Mr. Fosdick brings out the exact details of the law in New York, and laments not only the incompleteness of the law but the absence of any adequately handled test cases to prove the right of the city to control. The section of "Violations" shows that the first regulation in the building code is violated in 412 instances out of 500 cases inspected. The second requirement of the code is entirely ignored; 165 signs were found extending beyond the building line. Thirteen extensive billboards, situated along Riverside Drive at its most picturesque part, were found to be in violation of the law. Thirty-three of the 41 locations of signs about Central Park were found to be in violation of law.

In addition to bringing out the general disregard of law and regulation by the billboard-erecting concerns, Mr. Fosdick has shown graphically in this notable report the conditions prevailing at, about and behind the billboards, by means of numerous well-made photographs. He has also classified the character of advertising displayed, and proves that the billboards are largely used for the exploiting of "whiskies, wines, beers, gins, tobacco, cigarettes, patent medicines, etc.," and that "they are not used by merchants of the city." In insisting that "municipal expenditures to beautify public buildings and parks are offset by the appearance of billboards," Mr. Fosdick brings out the necessity for regulation. He discusses completely the decisions of courts as well as the methods for regulating billboards found so far more or less effective in the United States and abroad.

Taken altogether, this report is the most direct and convincing indictment yet formulated against billboard intrusions. It is a matter for regret that its recommendations have not been taken up promptly by New York authorities.

So quick was public approval of the report that the edition which had been printed of it was immediately exhausted.

J. HORACE McFARLAND.[1]

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American Police Reports.—*Introduction.* A good police report should contain three elements: a clear presentation of police statistics, an adequate interpretation of these statistics and a brief discussion of the most important problems of police administration. Many American reports contain some of these elements; very few contain all of these elements. In the hope that a brief consideration of what a good police report should contain may be of interest to police officials and may lead to a greater uniformity and usefulness of these public documents, this paper has been prepared.

Police statistics. Nearly every American police report contains adequate statistics of arrests, including the crimes committed, occupation, nationality, age and sex of prisoner. Equally important are the statistics of convictions secured, which comparatively few American reports contain. Extremely desirable also are adequate statistics of criminal complaints which would tend to give the citizen reliable information regarding the actual conditions of the peace of the community. Almost no American reports contain these statistics of criminal complaints.

The typographical arrangement of the statistics in most American reports is poor. They are frequently printed in large type using much space when smaller type would serve to make these statistics more serviceable and save a large item of expense. The practice of some departments in the publication of the details of all financial transactions and of the personnel of the force serves no useful purpose. Such lists are not statistics, and serve only to flatter the vanity of the men in seeing their names printed in the annual report.

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[1] President, American Civic Association.

Interpretation of statistics. In addition to the presentation of adequate police statistics, the annual police reports ought also to interpret these statistics for the benefit of the citizens, in the manner in which the United States Census Bureau interprets its statistics. The calculation of indices would render it practicable for the citizen to compare the efficiency of the police in one year with its efficiency in a previous year or the efficiency of the police in one city with the efficiency of the police in another city.

The complaint-arrest index is a useful means of measuring police activity; the arrest-conviction index is a useful index of police efficiency and the complaint-conviction is an excellent measure of the efficiency of the police protection. These indices are of value only in the case of felonies, in the case of misdemeanors every effort should be made to minimize the number of arrests and punish the offenders without the necessity of an arrest by the police.

Problems of police administration. When the writer ten years ago first made an examinaton of American police reports he was astonished to find that none of those examined with the exception of the reports of Superintendent Sylvester of the Washington Department discussed the more important problems of police administration. During the last few years a number of departments have incorporated in their reports this extremely important element. Such a discussion of police problems tends to interest the citizens in the work of the department and it renders easier the task of the head of department in instituting improvements. In his latest annual report the police commissioner of New York has made a further effort to popularize his reports by printing photographs of police functions and police activities. When funds for this purpose are available the publication of such photographs is also to be recommended.

Summary. A good police report should contain these elements: Complete statistical tables of criminal complaints, classified according to felonies, misdemeanors and juveniles; of criminal arrests, classified according to crimes and according to the occupation, sex, nationality, age and previous criminal record of the prisoner; and of convictions similarly classified. It should contain an adequate interpretation of these statistics by the calculation for felonies of the complaint-arrest index of police activity, the arrest-conviction index of police efficiency and the complaint-conviction index of the efficiency of the police protection. It should also discuss for the benefit of the citizens the most important problems of administration engaging the attention of the department with a view to interesting the citizens in the work of the department and the changes and reforms which are being planned and executed by the head of department.

LEONHARD FELIX FULD.[1]

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The Social Evil.—The Portland, Oregon, vice commission, appointed in September, 1911, has made two reports, in January and August, 1912. The Portland report deals entirely with the prevalence of venereal diseases in that city. The figures are startling. The percentage of veneral diseases to all disease reported was 21.1 per cent. As to the source, of the 109 physicians replying, 5 replied "professional prostitutes" and 104 "non-professional."

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[1] New York City.

Although a very considerable number of the inmates of the city and county jails and those who pass under the hands of the city and county health officers are infected, no record is kept of such cases, and no provision is made for their treatment save occasional services of the city or county physician. No attempt is made to segregate them, although a number of prisoners were observed in an acutely infected condition. There is no law which takes cognizance in any way of this disease, which is both contagious and infectious, nor are such cases obliged to receive treatment, even when they are a source of danger to others. The city has no facilities for the treatment of this disease, which is a source of menace to the public health, with the exception of a small venereal ward in the county hospital.

As a first ~~step~~ in a proper, adequate, constructive policy, the commission recommended the enactment of a law requiring the reporting of such cases of venereal disease as are encountered in dispensaries, hospitals, juvenile and municipal courts, penal institutions, maternity hospitals, rescue homes and all places of detention; and compelling persons so reported to be treated; and the establishment of special clinics under the board of health for the treatment of venereal disease; and the maintenance by the municipality of venereal wards in one of the existing hospitals, if such arrangements can be made, until the city builds a city hospital and that the city contribute to the support of the free dispensary, especially for the treatment of venereal diseases. It also strongly emphasized the importance of education concerning proper sex relations, their violation and the consequences thereof. Accordingly it commended the work already begun by the Social Hygiene Association of Portland.

The Philadelphia City Club *Bulletin* for March 16, 1912, contains a stenographic report of the thoughtful addresses made on the social evil before the City Club, at one of the largest luncheons held in its history. The figures of Dr. Morrow and the statements of Dean Sumner are most striking.

The Voters' League of Pittsburgh has published in full the argument of A. Leo Weil given on October 4, before the city council, on charges against the director of public safety; and has also issued (November 11, 1912) a bulletin on the investigations before the city council.

There are two national organizations dealing with the social evil, one the American Vigilance Association, of which Clifford G. Roe is executive secretary, and the American Federation for Sex Hygiene, of which Charles W. Burtwell is general secretary. Both are publishing a series of interesting pamphlets. The American Vigilance Association publishes a monthly bulletin entitled *Vigilance* which has recently been enlarged. The issue for November, 1912, contains a list of vice commissions and investigations.

* * *

Taxation Reports—*District of Columbia.* On August 20, 1912, a sub-committee of the house of representatives committee on the District submitted a report on the assessment and taxation of real estate in the District.[1] This report held "that real estate is assessed irregularly, unscientifically, without system and with gross discrimination between class and class, between land and improvements." The total assessment of real estate is stated to be only slightly more than two-fifths of the real value. But land is assessed at only one third of its true value, while improvements are assessed at two-thirds of their true vale. As between different classes of property, it is charged that there is a heavy discrimination against the small home, in comparison with the better houses and business property, while the large suburban speculative area bears less than a third of its proper burden. Further, the report presents a series of facts to demonstrate that this state of things is not due to chance but to deliberate policy. A series of recommendations for new legislation and administrative methods are made for the purpose of securing more thorough and equitable assessments.

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[1] Sixty-second Congress, second session, House Report No. 1215.

California. A special report on taxation, showing the "First Effects of Separation" on state, county and municipal revenues and tax rates, was issued by the California state board of equalization on December 1, 1911. The totals of a series of tables on county finances show the following results:

Gross saving to tax payers by elimination of state tax.............	$8,168,095
County taxes lost on property withdrawn.........	4,630,974
Net saving to county tax payers.................	3,537,121
Increase in county tax revenues...............	3,403,356

Thirteen of the fifty-six counties reporting showed a small net loss to county tax payers.

A valuable discussion of the proposed constitutional amendment for "Home Rule in Taxation," at meetings of the Commonwealth Club of California held in August and September, is published in the October issue of the *Transactions* of the Club. A majority report of the committee on taxation, presented by Prof. Carl C. Plehn, opposed the amendment; and a minority report favored it. An appendix contains data in regard to local government revenues in California and the systems of local taxation in Seattle, and Vancouver.

New York. The department of taxes and assessments has published a small pamphlet on "Factors of Value of New Buildings and Explanation of Land Value Maps." This explains some of the assessment methods employed by the department; and will be of service in other cities in developing systematic methods of real estate assessments.

Chicago. Bulletin No. 7 of the Civic Federation on "Tax Facts for Illinois," is a reprint of the findings of the Illinois special tax commission of 1910, and its recommendations for a constitutional amendment to permit the classification of personal property.

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Refuse Disposal in Ohio and Wisconsin.—The report of a study of the collection and disposal of city wastes in Ohio, published as a supplement to the twenty-fifth annual report of the Ohio state board of health, presents the results of what is probably the most comprehensive investigation thus far made of this subject in any American state. Field studies were carried on from the spring of 1909 until June, 1910, in nine cities, Cleveland, Cincinnati, Columbus, Dayton, Canton, Mansfield, Steubenville, and Zanesville, and samples collected in the various cities were analyzed in a special laboratory at Columbus. The studies were made under the supervision of Paul H. Hanson, acting chief engineer of the State Board of Health.

This report forms a substantial volume of 290 pages, well printed with numerous tables, charts and illustrations. The first quarter of the report is a general comparison, discussing the organization of the municipal departments, the equipment and methods of collecting city wastes, the quantities of waste materials and the methods of final disposal. An appendix, forming three fourths of the volume, gives a more detailed description of the methods of collection and disposal in the several cities.

A useful index is printed at the end of the report; but there is no table of contents.

Wisconsin.—The July, 1912, issue of *The Municipality*, published by the League of Wisconsin Municipalities, is a special garbage collection number. It includes papers on garbage collection in Wisconsin, by the municipal reference bureau of the University of Wisconsin, refuse collection and collection in the United States, a list of books on garbage collection, a number of articles on garbage wagons and a short account of garbage disposal in Berlin, Germany.

Public Utilities.—Professor E. W. Bemis' report on the investigation of the Chicago Telephone Company was submitted to the council committee on gas, oil, and electric light on October 25, 1912[1] This is the most exhaustive investigation thus far made of the various items of expense per unit in the telephone business, and has been made with the active coöperation of the telephone company. The conclusions reached are that a reduction of $700,000 in the charges of this company within the city of Chicago appears reasonable. But no attempt is made in this report to distribute this reduction among the different classes of service.

Municipal Lighting for Rockland, Mass., by William Plattner, makes comparisons of the cost of municipal lighting in seventeen Massachusetts towns, with an average cost of $1.42 per capita, for distributing nearly five times the amount of light for which Rockland pays 88 cents per capita.

The commissioners of accounts of New York City have published, under date of August 30, 1912, a report on an investigation of the accounts of the municipal ferries. This shows a net loss to the city of $6,625,606 for the period of municipal operation, a little over six years. Attention is however called to the fact that the former owners of the Staten Island ferry were not able to make it pay; and that municipal operation was established to provide transportation facilities for that part of the city.

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Philadelphia Finances.—Under date of August 1, the city controller of Philadelphia submitted to the city councils the annual statement showing estimates of receipts and expenditures for 1913, and also comparative statements showing the financial condition of the city as of January 1 and July 31, 1912, and statements showing the results of operations for the seven months ending at the latter date.

On September 18, an advisory committee on municipal finance, appointed by Mayor Blankenburg, reported to the mayor an analysis of the financial situation of the city. This estimated the operating revenues for 1912 at $28,852,806, and the operating expenditures at $31,818,698, leaving an estimated shortage in the operating account of $2,965,892. Such a shortage is said to have been habitual, at least since the year 1905; while the narrow margin now left in the city's borrowing capacity makes it impossible to continue the policy of creating long term loans to provide funds for operating expenses, if even a few of the most pressing improvements are to be prosecuted.

The committee recommends the assessment of real estate at its value scientifically determined, that the tax rate be fixed at a figure to provide revenue for operating purposes, and borrowing should be limited to procuring funds for necessary public works.

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German Municipal Statistics.—The eighteenth volume of the *Statistisches Jahrbuch Deutscher Städte*, following the general plan of former volumes, includes twenty-nine sections or chapters, each presenting the statistics on some phase of municipal conditions in cities of over 50,000 population. Most of the separate topics appear in each number of the yearbook; but the present volume contains data on several subjects which have not usually appeared—including police statistics, data on the personnel of municipal administration, and a financial summary.

In thirty of the eighty cities, there is a force of state police, including two-thirds of the cities with over 200,000 population. The largest cities with a municipal police force are: Chemnitz, Dusseldorf, Essen, Leipzig and Stuttgart.

From the financial summary, the statistics below show the total receipts and expenditures of some of the larger cities for the year 1908:

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[1] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. 1, p. 92.

CITY	TOTAL RECEIPTS	TOTAL EXPENDITURES
	marks	*marks*
Munich	100,777,517	98,804,213
Breslau	50,950,433	51,354,728
Cologne	102,888,615	82,905,337
Frankfort on the Main	103,449,386	103,449,386
Dusseldorf	57,627,247	57,811,519

◆

City Planning.—The report of the Massachusetts metropolitan planning commission in January 1912, recommended the creation of a metropolitan planning board to collect the data for a metropolitan plan through a systematic consultation with all the local authorities. An appendix includes a brief discussion of the advantages of metropolitan planning, notes on the success of city planning elsewhere and a selected bibliography on city planning.

First place is given to city planning in the twenty-fourth annual report of the City Parks Association of Philadelphia. The report includes a number of illustrations, and a small map of the existing parks of Philadelphia and the proposed greater park system.

A joint report on a comprehensive system of passenger subways for the city of Chicago, by the harbor and subway commission and a sub-committee of the council committee on local transportation, was presented to the full committee under date of September 10, 1912. This includes a map of the routes recommended and a discussion of the engineering features and the financial plan.

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County Officers.—Report No. 1 of an efficiency series begun by the Municipal Association of Cleveland, Ohio, presents the results of an investigation of the sheriff's office in Cuyahoga County. This recommends some readjustment of positions and salaries and a change in the arrangements for feeding prisoners in the county jail. The changes in the office force and salaries would effect a saving of $4000 a year. The payments to the sheriff for feeding prisoners during the preceding four years are said to have been $32,000 in excess of the actual cost for food and service.

Coroner P. M. Hoffman, of Cook County, Illinois has issued a brief report showing the work of his office for the years 1907 to 1911 inclusive. The following summary of totals will be of interest:

Year	Total Inquests	Natural Causes	Accidents	Homicides	Suicides	Other Causes
1907	4,237	1,596	947	186	407	1,101
1908	4,214	1,622	798	172	535	1,087
1909	4,604	1,722	900	176	476	1,264
1910	4,895	2,014	1,245	203	489	944
1911	5,056	1,956	1,195	221	523	1,116

The report discusses the increase in the number of accidents and homicides and means of reducing the most frequent classes of accidents.

◆

Cleveland Chamber of Commerce.—The annual report for the year ending April 9, 1912, is an admirable illustration of the interest in municipal affairs by business organizations. Much the larger part of this report deals with the work of a series of committees on municipal problems—including committees on municipal art and architecture, street railway franchises, public recreation,[1] housing conditions, smoke prevention, civil service, public safety, municipal courts, city finances, and legislation. The committee on city finances submitted to the state auditor a set of standard accounts for use in the Mayor's annual budget, appropriation ordinances and city books. The committee on legislation urged favorable action on the proposal in the Constitutional Convention providing home rule for Ohio cities. Some indication of the active work of this organization may be gained by noting that during the year there were 684 meetings of the chamber, and its directors, boards and committees.

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[1] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. i, p. 462.

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City Club of Chicago.—Its numerous activities are set forth in the annual reports of the civic committees, published in the City Club Bulletin for September 28, 1912. The report of the civic secretary, to the annual meeting in April, showed that the 23 committees had held a total of 300 meetings during the year. Important work was done by the committees on public education;[1] harbors, wharves and waterways; and lighting and telephone service.

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Citizens Association of Chicago.—The thirty-eighth annual report gives a brief summary of the work of this organization, notably in preventing and exposing illegal voting and investigating methods of garbage disposal.

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Cambridge (Mass.) Taxpayers Association.—The third annual report renews the recommendations of former reports for a scientific assessment of real estate and a complete revision of the city charter.

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[1] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol 1, p. 457.

DEPARTMENT OF REPORTS AND DOCUMENTS

II. BIBLIOGRAPHICAL[1]

EDITED BY MISS ADELAIDE R. HASSE

Chief of the Division of Documents, New York Public Library

General

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The Society whose address is 33 Tothill Street. S. W., London, is conducting a campaign for the maintenance of the present metropolitan borough system, in opposition to the Progressive Socialist party which proposes the abolition of borough councils and their substitution by one central authority. The above pamphlet is sold for 3d.

MONOGRAPHIEN DEUTSCHER STÄDTE. Darstellung deutscher Städte und ihrer Arbeit in Wirtschaft, Finanzwesen, Hygiene, Sozialpolitik und Technik. Herausgegeben von E. Stein, generalsekretär des Vereins für Kommunalwirtschaft und Kommunalpolitik. Bd. 1. Neukölln. 1912. 158 p. illus. 4°.

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[1] The Editor of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW is happy to be able to announce that he will answer to the extent of his ability any questions requiring documentary research. He is able to make this announcement through the cordial cooperation of Miss Hasse, who has expressed her willingness to make the bibliography department a library service department for the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW. All communications must be addressed to the editor of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, North American Building, Philadelphia.

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How Des Moines Solved the High Cost of Living. (Civic Progress. August, 1912.)

Relative to the public market of Des Moines.

King, Clyde Lyndon. A study of trolley light freight service and Philadelphia markets in their bearing on the cost of farm produce. Made under the direction of Rudolph Blankenburg, mayor. October, 1912. 58 p. 8°.

The report, which is published by the department of public works, is a preliminary study to find out whether a program can be adopted by the city that will lower the cost of getting country produce from farmers to Philadelphia consumers, the purpose being to furnish data upon which a municipal policy might be formulated. In showing the rise of prices from producer to consumer it is revealed that the latter pays from 67 per cent to 266 per cent, with an average of 136 per cent, more than the producer receives. The volume includes a discussion of the effect on prices of certain statutes, ordinances and licenses, the full text in each case being given.

New York State. Report of the committee on markets, prices and costs of the New York state food investigating commission. 1912. 76 p. 1 map.

Nuremberg, Germany. Statistisches Amt. Zur Frage der Fleischversorgung mit besonderer Berücksichtigung Nürnberger Verhältnisse. 1912. 109 p., 15 leaves. 8°. (Mitteilungen, Heft 3.)

Tompkins, Calvin. A report on wholesale terminal markets at the port of New York. Submitted to the New York food investigation commission. 1912. 21 p., 1 map. 8°.

Mr. Tompkins is commissioner of docks of New York City, and the above report is no. 20 of the numbered series issued by the dock commissioner.

Municipal Forestry

New York State College of Forestry at Syracuse University. Press bulletins. A successfully managed city forest in New York: Syracuse maintains the first commercial forest devoted entirely to the production of trees as a forest crop. A course in city forestry offered by the New York State College of Forestry at Syracuse University.

The bulletins were released for publication on November 25, 1912. The College of Forestry has also outlined a four year course leading to the position of city forester. It is believed that these trained city foresters will accomplish a great work in the future.

Municipal Home Rule

Commonwealth Club of California (Transactions, v. 7, no. 4, October, 1912.) Home rule in taxation. p. 375–460. 8°.

In 1911 the board of governors of the Club ordered that a permanent committee on taxation be formed to observe and report on the workings of the new state tax system. The problem of "home rule," or local option, in taxation was brought before the committee by a constitutional amendment proposed by petition for vote at the election of November 5, 1912. The above noted number of the Transactions contains the text of the discussions at various meetings of the committee on taxation during August and September, 1912. A very useful appendix contains a chapter respectively on the local government revenues in California, a report by George T. Klink on the Vancouver system of taxation with a comparative statistical table, 1886–1911, and a report by A. B. Nye opposed to the proposed abolishment of the poll tax in California.

Fuller, A. M. Efficiency in city government. The general manager plan. 9 p. 8°.

An address delivered before the adjourned meeting of the allied civic bodies committee held at Harrisburg, October 2, 1912.

Municipal Association of Cleveland. A home rule charter for Cleveland. Address by Mayo Fesler, secretary, before the Council of Sociology, Cleveland, October 14, 1912. 26 p. 8°.

Municipal Government Association of New York State. What we did in less than one year. October. 1912. 9 p. 8°.

—— Home rule for cities. Since everybody believes in it, why don't we have it? Address by Robert S. Binkerd to the third annual conference of mayors, at Utica, June 10, 1912. 11 p. 8°.

—— Home rule memorial submitted to Utica conference of mayors on behalf of Municipal Government Associations of New York State. 1912. 7 p. 8°.

Business Men's League of St. Louis. Home rule for St. Louis. Three bills for the government of the police, elections and excise departments of the city, to be submitted to the Legislature of Missouri. 12 folios. 4°.

The bills were written by Mr. Charles W. Bates. formerly city counselor of St. Louis, and the publication described above is a digest of their contents, prepared by Mr. Bates.

Museums, etc.

Prague, Bohemia. Kunstgewerblicher Museum der Handels-und gewerbekammer in Prag. Bericht des Kuratoriums fur das Verwaltungsjahr 1911. 1912. 30, 28 p. 8°.

Ordinances

Great Britain. Local government Board. Model by-laws. Series IV. (a). Rural district councils. New buildings and certain matters in connection with buildings. 1912. 19 leaves. f°.

—— Series IV. (b.) By-laws with respect to drainage of existing buildings. 1912. 7 pages. f°.

—— Series IV. By-laws with respect to new streets and buildings. 1912. 43 leaves. f°.

Texas. State insurance board. A fire marshall ordinance (advisory) issued by the board. 1912. 4 p. 8°.

—— Moving picture machine booth. Requirements for construction and equipment. (advisory) 1912. 1 sheet.

—— An ordinance regulating the construction and operation of electric theatres (advisory) 1912. 1 sheet.

—— An ordinance regulating the storage and handling of gasolene or other volatiles (advisory) 1912. 1 sheet.

—— An ordinance to regulate the keeping and storage of calcium carbide within the city (advisory). 1912. 2 sheets.

Parks

See also above the "General" group under Newark; also above "Municipal Forestry."

Bronx Park Commission. Report of the commission organized under ch.

594 of the laws of 1907. 1912. 38 p. illus., 2 maps in pocket. 8°.

Thr proposed Bronx parkway extends from New York City into adjoining Westchester County and has been discussed ever since 1895 when the first commission to inquire into the reclamation of Bronx River was appointed.

Cotterill, R. The parks, playgrounds and boulevards of Seattle. (Amer. City, September. 1912, p. 204.)

Wheelwright, Robert. The appointment and powers of park commissioners. A comparison of Chicago, New York and Hudson county. (Landscape Architecture, October, 1912, p. 25–40.)

Police

See also above the "General" group under Newark; also below Port development under New York City.

Brooks, Sydney. Problem of the New York police. (Nineteenth Century, October, 1912, p. 687–700.)

Chief Constable's Association of Canada. Official report of the seventh (Canadian Municip. Journ., July, 1912, p. 257–262.)

Police pensions; society's obligation to the discharged prisoner.

Russell, Capt. John H. Report on the Bridgeport police department. August 28, 1912. 16 p. 8°.

Population

Bavaria. Statistisches Landesamt. Bayern und seine Gemeinden unter dem Einfluss der Wanderungen während der letzten 50 Jahre. München, 1912. iv. 302, 264 p. 4°.

Comprises Heft 69 of the "Beitrage zur Statistik des Königreichs Bayern." This very minute study is occasioned by the alarming depletion of the population of Bavaria, caused both by high infant mortality and by emigration. While not entirely treated as a city problem much careful work has been done on the question of urban migration, both as to its causes and its effect on the food producing element. The textual part of the report closes with a chapter on the influence which changes in the population have on the taxing power of cities. A similar study on the relation of the migratory population to the taxes is entered below under taxation.

Schott, Sigmund. Die grossstädtischen agglomerationen des deutschen Reichs 1871–1910. Breslau, 1912. 130 p. 8°.

Heft I of Schriften des Verbandes der deutschen Städtestatistiker. Dr. Schott is Professor of Statistics at the University of Heidelberg. The Germans apply the term "Gross-stadt" to cities of 100,000 population or over. This very suggestive study of one of the most remarkable modern developments, viz. the German city, will be useful to every agency interested in the dynamics of the urban movement. In 1871 there were 8 German Grosstädte. In 1910 their number had increased to 48. Dr. Schott presents the progress of coagulation and its relation to the process of redistribution viz. city building, or, as he had modified the work, city bildung.

Port Development

Boulogne-sur-Mer. Chambre de Commerce. Port de Boulogne. Notice etablie a l'occasion de l'inauguration du bassin Loubet. 1912. 50 p. illus. 1 map. 8°.

City Club of New York. Bulletin, September–October, 1912. 2 leaves. 4°.

New York City police investigation—dental hygiene in the public schools—The freight terminal problem of New York City.

Great Britain. Foreign Office. Report on the economic development of France in 1910 and 1911. London, 1912. 105 p. 8°. (Diplomatic and Consular Reports, Annual series no. 5001.)

On p. 26–31 is given a very clear summary of the operation of the act of January, 1912, establishing administrative councils at the eight great French ports, viz., Marseilles, Havre, Rouen, Dunkirk, Bordeaux, La Rochelle, Nantes and Cherbourg.

New York City. South Brooklyn water front committee. Letter from the president of the Bush Terminal Company and report of the committee relative to proposed control by the city of the Bush Terminal Railway. (City Record, October 10, 1912, p. 8007–8012.)

Tompkins, Calvin. A comprehensive plan and policy for the organization and administration of the inter-state port of New York and New Jersey. 1912 26 p., 1 map, 8°.

No. 18 of the numbered series of reports issued by the dock commissioner of New York City.

Public Health

See also below "Tuberculosis Suppression and Vital Statistics."

Boldman, Charles F. A guide to some of the hygienic features of New York City. Prepared for the fifteenth International Congress on Hygiene and Demography. September, 1912. 66 p. 8° (New York City. Health Department. Monograph series no. 6.)

Kerr, J. W., and A.A. Moll. Common drinking cups and roller towels. An analysis or the laws and regulations relating thereto in force in the United States. 1912. 30 p. 8° (U. S. Public Health Service. Public Health Bulletin 57.)

——Organization, powers, and duties of health authorities. An analysis of the laws and regulations relating thereto in force in the United States. 1912. 452p. 8°. (U. S. Public Health Service. Public Health Bulletin 54.)

Includes municipal boards.

Liverpool, England. Report on the health of the city of Liverpool during 1911. 288 p. maps, plates, 8°.

Report is made by E. W. Hope, M.D., the medical officer of health. The powers of the Liverpool medical officer are most comprehensive, including the housing, feeding, sanitation of the infant, young and mature citizen, as well as refuse disposal, smoke, abatement, lodging house, bake shop, factory inspection, etc. This report has a special return on the number and varieties of bacteria carried by the common housefly, illustrated with cuts and charts.

Public Utilities

See also above the "General" group, under Newark.

Bristol, England. Electricity department. Annual report and statement of accounts at March twenty-fifth, 1912. 28 p. 8°.

Maintained by the city since 1883. Operations of the year 1911–1912 resulted in a gross profit of £50,172. Included in the report is a special report by Prof. Lawrence R. Dicksee on the management of the reserve (for renewals) fund.

Chicago, Ill. Committee on gas, oil, and electric light. Report on the investigation of the Chicago Telephone Company. By Prof. Edward W. Bemis, October 25, 1912. 127 p. 8°.

——Joint report on comprehensive system of passenger subways for the city of Chicago by the harbor and subway commission and sub-committee of the council committee on local transportation. September 10, 1912. 14 p., 1 map. 8°.

Dunn, S. O. The problem of the modern terminal. (Scribner's Mag., October, 1912, p. 416–442.)

New York City. Commissioner of Accounts. Report in the matter of the investigation of the accounts of the municipal ferries, operated by the department of docks and ferries, city of New York. August 30, 1912. 6 leaves, 6 folding tables. 4°.

New York State. Public service commission, first district. Dual system of rapid transit for New York City. September, 1912. 54 p., illus.

Plattner, William. Report to the municipal electric light investigating committee of Rockland, Mass. 1912. 25 p. 8°.

Mr. Plattner, a consulting engineer of North Attleborough, Mass., was employed by a special committee of the town of Rockland, to make an examination of the existing physical conditions and operating efficiency of the present property of the Electric Light and Power Company of Abingdon and Rockland.

Richardson, W. S. The terminal—the gate of the city. (Scribner's Mag., October, 1912, p. 401–416.)

"What is a Million Dollars to the City of New York Anyway?" Letter to the mayor of New York City by Duncan D. McBean. September 24, 1912. 94 p. illus. 4°.

Written by the originator of the French method of constructing subaqueous tunnels. A review of the building of the Harlem River Tunnel, New York City, the first time the French method was used, the Detroit River Tunnel and the Lexington Avenue Harlem River Tunnel. A protest against alleged extravagance in expenditures for public construction works by the City of New York.

Refuse Disposal

Municipality (The). v. 13, no. 1, July 1912. Garbage collection number. 27 p. 8°.

Garbage collection in Wisconsin; refuse collection in the U. S.; garbage wagons, etc.

New York Public Library. List of works on city wastes and street hygiene. (Bulletin of the Library, October, 1912, p. 731–783.)

Schools

See also above the "General" group, under Newark.

London, England. The organization of education in London. Printed for the London County Council. 5th edition. 1912. 32 p. 8°.

——Regulations made by the Council with regard to the education service. VIII. Management of public elementary day schools. August, 1912. p. 309–391. 12°.

——Same. X. School attendance. September, 1912. p. 431–441. 12°.

New York City. Board of education. Report of a special committee appointed by the board in regard to the teaching of shorthand in high schools. 2 leaves. 12°.

——Report submitted to the committee on school inquiry of the board of estimate and apportionment on the condition and efficiency of public school buildings of the city of New York by Charles G. Armstrong. July, 1912. 68 p., illus. 8°.

An earlier print in the *City Record* was noted in the October number of the Review.

——Estimate and apportionment board. Special report by the committee on school inquiry. October 31, 1912. 36 p. 4°.

On the report of Ernest C. Moore upon the organization and methods of the board of education and functions of local boards. Dr. Moore's report had not been published when this special report was issued, it is, however, at this time in press and will be noted later.

Neukölln, Germany. Das Schulwesen Neuköllns im Lichte der Hygiene. Herausgegeben vom magistrat. 1912. 31 p. illus. 4°.

Especially useful to those interested in the care of backward and defective children. Neukölln is the name which the ancient city of Rixdorf was authorized to adopt on January 27, 1912.

Philadelphia Public Education Association. Thirtieth annual report, 1911–12. 32 p. 8°.

The Association at present has a membership of 1046. The report is an inspiring record of civic helpfulness. Address 1015 Witherspoon Building, Philadelphia.

Sewage Disposal

See also above the "General" group, under Newark.

New York City. Metropolitan sewerage commission. Preliminary reports on the disposal of New York's sewage. IV. Study of the collection and disposal of the sewage of the upper East River and Harlem Division. July, 1912. 17 p., 1 map. 8°.

——Present sanitary condition of New York harbor and the degree of cleanness which is necessary and sufficient for the water. Report of the metropolitan sewage commission of New York. August 1, 1912. 457 p. plates A–G. 4°.

Address: Metropolitan sewerage commission.

Smoke Abatement

Flagg, Samuel B. City smoke ordinances and smoke abatement. 1912. 55 p. 8° (U. S. Mines bureau. Bulletin 49.)

Since the fuel-testing investigations were begun by the government in 1904, and in some measure because of them, a marked improvement has been made in the smokeless burning of many fuels. This advance has resulted partly from a desire to improve general power plant economy, but more largely from a public demand for less smoke. The greatest advance has come and must continue to come through the organized effort of city smoke departments, supplemented by the active coöperation of citizens. In connection with its fuel investigations the bureau of mines has accumulated much information as to smoke abatement activities in various cities. The essential features of the information are presented in the above noted report. The substance of the smoke ordinances of the 28 American cities having over 200,000 population is given, and the text of the smoke ordinances of Chicago, Pittsburgh, Des Moines, Milwaukee and Los Angeles is printed in full.

Milwaukee, Wis. Annual report of the smoke inspector for 1911. 16 p. 8°.

Charles Poetke, inspector. Office was created by chap. 21, General Ordinances of 1906.

Perkins, Geo. H. The international smoke abatement exhibition held in London, March and April, 1912. (Journ. Amer. Socy. Mechanical Engrs., October 1912, p. 1543–1556.)

An informal report to the trustees of the Lowell Textile School who delegated the writer to attend the conference held in connection with the exhibition.

Smoke Abatement League of Great Britain. Text of a smoke abatement bill, 1912. 4 p. 8°.

Watt, Ernest. Smoke prevention. (Public Health (London) October 1912, p. 13–14.)

On a practical experiment in Partick, Scotland.

Social Surveys

See also above under "City Planning," under Montreal.

Aronovici, Carol. The Newport survey of social problems. Prepared for the Newport survey committee. 1912. 59 p. 8°.

Burns, Allan T. Need and scope of a social survey for Montclair, N. J. September 25, 1912. 23 p. 8°.

The report is made to H. E. Fosdick, chrm. of the Survey Committee, of Montclair.

Byington, Margaret F. What social workers should know about their own communities. Ed. 2, revised and enlarged. 1912. 42 p. 8°.

Russell Sage Foundation. The social survey. Papers by Paul W. Kellogg, Shelby M. Harrison, Geo. T. Palmer, Pauline Goldmark and Robt. E. Chaddock. 1912. 62 p. 8°.

Reprinted from the proceedings of the Academy of Political Science, vol. 2, no. 4, July 1912. The address of the Russell Sage Foundation is 105 E. 22d Street, New York City.

Wheaton, H. H. Survey of Rochester's Polish-town. (Common Good of Civic and Social Rochester, August 1912, p. 11–15.)

Continued from an article in the January number.

Special Investigations

See also above "Housing Reforms," "Loan Offices," "Markets," "Police" (under Russell) "Public Utilities," Traffic Regulation" and "Schools."

Municipal Association of Cleveland. The sheriff's office. Report of the investigation made by the Municipal Association in the interest of economy and efficiency. September, 1912. 26 p. 8°. (Efficiency series. Report no. 1.)

Weil, A. Leo. Argument (stenographic report) for the Voters' League on charges against Jos. G. Armstrong, director of department of public works, September 30 and October 1, 1912, before the city council of Pittsburgh. 100 p. 8°.

The address of the League is 1374 Frick Annex, Pittsburgh.

——Argument (stenographic report) for The Voters' League on charges against John M. Morin director of department public safety, on October 4, 1912, before the city council of Pittsburgh. 78 p. 8°.

Streets

See also above the "General" group, under Newark.

Gabelman, F. Roadway and lawn space widths and maintenance of boulevards and streets in Kansas City, Mo. (Amer. City., October 1912, p. 350.)

New York City. Report of the mayor's committee on pavements. Appointed in October 1911, to investigate and report on the present condition of the pavements of the city and how they can best be improved. March, 1912. 95 p. illus. 4°.

Street Railways

See "Public Utilities."

Subways

See "Public Utilities."

Taxation

Halle, A. S. Die gemeindeeinkommen steuerleistung von Zuzug und Fortzug in Halle a. S. Ein Abgleich der steuerlichen Leistungsfähigkeit der Zu- und Fortgezogenen. 1912. 111 p. 8°.

Beiträge zur Statistik der Stadt Halle. Heft 19. A study based on a card record for 1909 of 70,000 migrants, of whom 15,500 were taxpayers. A chapter on the influence which the migratory population has on the taxing power of cities is included in the Bavarian report entered above under "Population."

New York City. Factors of value of new buildings and explanation of land value maps. 22 p. oblong 8°.

Published by the department of taxes and assessments. The land value maps referred to are an annual publication. In the issue for .913, issued in September, 1912, the unit of value is flexible and not unalterable as was the case with former issues. This innovation will enable the taxpayer to make a comparison with the assessment and value placed on the property for taxation. In the case of former maps the unit of value could not be changed whereas under the new system the figures simply show the conclusions of the appraisers.

——Taxation of personal property in the state of New York. 21 p. 8°.

Compiled by Edward L. Heydecker and published by the department of taxes and assessments of New York City.

Telephone Companies

See "Public Utilities."

Traffic Regulation

Cincinnati, O. Text of traffic ordinance of September 3, 1912. (Citizens' Bulletin September 7, 1912, p. 6.)

London Traffic. (London Municipal Notes, no. 90, November, 1912, p. 489–506.)

Discussion in the London County Council on October 15, on the subject of a central traffic authority for London. The London Times of October 4, 15–16, 19, 23–25, publishes a series of notable articles on the London traffic problem.

New York City. Report of the special committee appointed by the rules committee of the board of aldermen to investigate the speed regulations of the city together with a proposed ordinance. July 9, 1912. (Proceedings, Board of Aldermen, July 9, 1912, p. 156–163.)

Transportation

See "Public Utilities."

Tuberculosis Suppression

Billings, John S., Jr. The tuberculosis clinics and day camps of the department of health. July, 1912. 123 p. 8°. (New York City. Department of Health. Monograph series no. 2.)

Vital Statistics

Berlin, Germany. Tabellen über die Bevölkerungsvorgänge Berlins im Jahre 1910. 1912. 4 p.l., 134 p. f°.

Published by the Statistisches Amt of Berlin. An annual publication and a model of municipal vital statistics.

Water Supply

See also above the "General" group under Newark.

Philadelphia, Penn. A great industrial plant and its owners. September, 1912. 20 p.

Water supply educational series. booklet no. 1, bureau of water, Philadelphia.

BOOK REVIEWS

The Regulation of Municipal Utilities. Edited by Clyde Lyndon King, Ph.D. New York: D. Appleton and Company, pp. ix + 404, $1.50.

In the annual meetings of the National Municipal League no subject has received a larger share of attention than the adequate control and regulation of municipal utilities. The discussion of this subject began with the first meeting of the League in Minneapolis, in 1894, when Edward W. Bemis presented a paper on "Some Essentials of Good City Government in the Way of Granting Franchises," and it has continued almost without interruption through all subsequent meetings down to that held in Los Angeles during the past summer, when papers were presented on "State versus Municipal Regulation of Public Utilities" and "Street Railway Franchises." To go through this mass of material and present the best there is in it to the public in a thoroughly usable form was no easy undertaking. This task Dr. King has admirably performed in his book, which is the third in the series now being published by the National Municipal League for the purpose of making available for the general public the great mass of material heretofore to be found only in the published proceedings of the annual meetings.

The author divides his subject into five parts. Part I, which is introductory, discusses the need for public regulation and the relative value of regulation and municipal ownership, and closes with an account of the Minneapolis gas settlement as a typical struggle between the modern city and the corporations intended to minister to the wants of its citizens. Part II is entitled "Regulation Through Franchise," and as the title suggests deals with the essentials of a good franchise and the necessity of a constructive policy in granting franchises. "Regulation Through Municipal Utility Commissions" forms the subject of Part III, which, after a discussion of the need for utility commissions in general, gives some of the results obtained by Municipal utility commissions in Los Angeles, Kansas City and St. Louis. Part IV considers the regulation of public utilities by state commissions, as distinguished from city commissions, and summarizes in separate chapters the results obtained in three typical states: Massachusetts with its three advisory commissions of the older type; New York with its two strong commissions having jurisdiction in different territorial divisions of the state; and Wisconsin with its single commission possessing vigorous regulatory powers. Part V is very brief and consists of a few pertinent conclusions drawn from the preceding discussions. A brief but well selected bibliography and the index complete the volume.

In the preparation of the volume Dr. King has played the part of author as well as editor. Six of the nineteen chapters are from his pen and they are certainly not the least valuable parts of the book. One will scarcely find the reasons for public regulation of public utilities more clearly and concisely stated than the author has stated them in the opening chapter. In his chapter on "Municipal Ownership versus Adequate Regulation" he appears as an advocate of public ownership, not as an end desirable in itself, but, in a way, as a gun behind the door to be used when necessary upon refractory utility corporations. If, however, our attempts at regulation should ultimately prove ineffectual, he would not hesitate to urge public ownership, for he believes that the abuses of non-regulation are far greater and more pernicious than the evils of municipal ownership. "Only in case these abuses of private ownership can be abated, should the tendency toward municipal ownership be checked." The rest of the book is a search for means and methods of abating these abuses, in order that public ownership with its attendant evils may not be forced upon us.

In his chapter on "Franchise Essentials," Dr. King reaches the following among other conclusions: (1) That the franchise term should be as short as is consistent with profitable investment. (2) That the indeterminate franchise has distinct merits over the definite term franchise. (3) That proper extensions and adequate service are more important than financial compensation to the city. (4) That the franchise should reserve to the city and the state unrestricted powers of regulation and unhampered means of franchise enforcement. (5) That provision should be made for an amortization fund and for ultimate reversion to the city. This chapter, supplemented by Dr. Maltbie's careful summary of New York City's franchise experience and the excellent paper by Dr. Wilcox on "A Constructive Franchise Policy," furnishes the reader with a fairly complete view of the most recent conclusions on what should go into a utility franchise. As a still further aid in this direction there is presented the "Model Street Railway Franchise," which was prepared and presented at the Richmond Conference of the League, in 1911, by James W. S. Peters, president of the City Club of Kansas City, and Dr. Delos F. Wilcox, chief of the bureau of franchises for the public service commission for the first district of New York.

The author's presentation of the need for utility commissions leaves little to be desired, and he shows conclusively that the problem can not be solved by local commissions alone. There must be state commissions with power to deal with corporations that extend beyond the jurisdiction of a single city, such as interurban railways and long-distance telephone and telegraph companies. State commissions, too, are needed to furnish help to the smaller cities, for to them the expense of maintaining an efficient utilities commission would be prohibitive. The local commissions should not be abolished, however, but should be retained to deal with purely local problems and to serve as supplements to the state commissions, which the author regards as the essential agencies in the work of regulation. He would concentrate power and responsibility in a few hands and he would secure the best possible talent for the commissions by offering liberal salaries and relatively long terms of service. "The attempt" to quote directly, "to regulate million-dollar corporations through men of wee calibre is but another way of saying that the million-dollar corporations may do the regulating. The highly paid, well-fed corporate expert must be met with a highly paid, highly equipped civic expert. The commissioners themselves need not be technical experts, but they must be sufficiently trained to supervise the most technical of experts. By this method the community can protect itself against the most cunning and greedy of its serving concerns."

In conclusion, it may be said that the book seems destined to prove a very useful tool in the hands, not only of students of municipal problems, but of the men actually engaged in operating the machinery of city government. It is a distinct contribution to the literature of the subject with which it deals.

C. S. Potts.

The University of Texas.

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The New City Government. By Henry Bruère. New York: D. Appleton and Company, $1.50, postpaid $1.62.

Every reformer knows within his heart that his own reform is the one essential and he endures with more or less secret indulgence the other men who think that theirs is the *sine qua non*. Without such an undying inward spark of fanaticism the enthusiasm of the promoters of betterment schemes would all flicker out before they could kindle the cold hearts of mankind. But the average reformer acquires, a bit unwillingly, a saving sense of humor regarding his hobby and manages to see good in other men's efforts.

"The bureau of municipal research crowd" have been a bit slow in finding the aforesaid sense of humor and have been in years past rather careless about allowing the reformer's instinctive provincialism of spirit to develop in the form of offhand and cocksure disparagement of proposals advanced by other thinkers.

It was with misgivings, therefore, that we saw them sally out to see if this much-praised commission government would really stand expert investigation of its administrative side. Now, commission government has smashed a host of old obstructions to clean politics and has become for a time the most available vehicle to carry us toward municipal freedom. We knew it was not perfect, but we knew it was a better and sounder environment for municipal ideals than the cumbersome, boss-ridden, machine-managed complication of obscurities that preceded it.

But how would it stand a broadside of 1300 questions? Suppose they found myriad shortcomings in these little western cities, reckoned by New York's latest administrative standards—would they recklessly exploit them in such fashion as to furnish plausible ammunition for every boss elsewhere who wanted to defend his rotten citadel from invasion by the new movement?

Well, they have come back and written a book—Bruère's *The New City Government*—and it is my pleasant task to record here the fact that although they missed some of the biggest things in commission government, they perceived much good in the new plan and were exceedingly careful to say nothing that could be construed as opposition to the commission government movement as such.

It has turned out to be not a book on commission government at all, but a study of ten cities, which happen to have commission government, in comparison point by point with the best standards of the day. Any other ten cities would have served as object lessons equally well, and in fact the book would have been a more helpful contribution if cities of both the old and new type had been included. The latter scheme of study might have happened to show up the commission cities as decidedly inferior in administrative efficiency to the selected examples of the old type—the best work is not necessarily produced by the best tools—but the hope of America would still lie, for some years to come, in the spread of commission government.

The real test of the success or failure of a given system of government would be not the answer to the question, "Are the municipal accounts correctly planned?" but the answer given when you ask—"The current accounting system being so inefficient as to cause widespread dissatisfaction among the people (provided it does), does reform promptly ensue?" It is of no scientific value to learn that Dallas permits open vice in a segregated district unless we also learn whether that condition flourishes in the face of public disapproval or receives general sanction. Des Moines, on the other hand, is reported practically viceless, but the "Researchers" should have made sure that a viceless town is what Des Moines really wants to be. It might have been that a few powerful citizens had forced virtue on an unwilling electorate in which case the clean conditions would be an indictment of the commission plan and not a commendation.

However, some incidental light is cast on these municipal governments as tools. Many claims as to their real democracy are proven sound and from the standpoint of political science nothing ugly or even disappointing, is disclosed. In fact a reprint of certain pertinent chapters would constitute an excellent piece of propaganda literature for the commission government movement.

There is an over-concentration upon problems of administration as if these city governments were mere business corporations. They have examined the administration of those towns and praised or censured in the light of what *they* know an administration ought to be, and the lesson of the book consequently is that while commission government is a success so far as it goes, it doesn't and can't succeed without "municipal research." Very true. And other reformers, coming to ten commission governed cities after the "Municipal Researchers" had gotten them all fixed up would say that commission government doesn't and can't succeed without proportional representation or single tax or socialism. It depends on what "succeed" means and the only standard for success is the eagerness and completeness wherewith the government conforms to the local popular demands.

For the commission government movement is not a movement toward efficient government or good government—but toward bossless, politicianless, popular government, a pre-requisite to establishing the former on any lasting basis. And since that point did not loom large in the philosophy of the municipal researchers, their report gives disappointingly little data on commission government's main claim for consideration. They observed the commonplace collars and traces of these new governments instead of the new bridles and reins.

Accordingly, the real interest and value of the book—and it *is* interesting, and it *is* valuable—lies in the illuminating make-up of their examination paper with its suggestive implications rather than in the answers given by the ten cities. Richard S. Childs.

New York.

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Sewage Disposal. By George W. Fuller. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company. $5.

Practical Methods of Sewage Disposal for Residences, Hotels and Institutions. By Henry N. Ogden and H. Burdett Cleveland. New York: John Wiley and Sons. $1.50.

Rarely does a book appear which deals so thoroughly with a large and complex technical subject as does Mr. Fuller's *Sewage Disposal.* More remarkable still the volume, while addressed primarily to engineers, chemists and bacteriologists having to do with sewage disposal, may be readily followed by any layman of fair intelligence who through official position or interest in one of the most trying problems of modern sanitation has occasion to inform himself as to various current methods of getting rid of sewage. The success of the author in meeting the large task which he undertook needs no explanation to those familiar with his quarter-century of close experimental and practical studies of his subject. These began at the Lawrence Experiment Station of the Massachusetts State Board of Health, of which Mr. Fuller was for some time Director, and have been continued as a consulting engineer and sanitarian who has directed many other experiments, as well as the building of many of the most important water and sewage purification plants in this country.

Added to this Mr. Fuller is a facile and lucid writer, so that what flows from his pen has not only the authority of knowledge and experience but also the grace and clearness of good literary style.

This is not the place, nor is space available here, to enter into a detailed consideration of the contents of Mr. Fuller's book. Suffice it to say that it deals at length and authoritatively with the composition of sewage, and with the chemistry and bacteriology of sewage and of sewage disposal methods; with the problems of sewage disposal in relation to general nuisances, to public water supplies and to health; and with the different means of sewage disposal, including disposal by dilution, and by all the many methods now in general use or which promise to come into use in the near future. Under disposal by dilution, or by discharge into water, which Mr. Fuller, in common with other well-posted engineers and sanitarians, considers perfectly legitimate when properly controlled, inland streams, lakes, tidal estuaries and the ocean are separately considered. The chapters on preliminary or preparatory treatment, such as may be required prior to disposal by dilution or before subjecting the sewage to a more or less high degree of final treatment, take up screens, septic tanks (including the Travis and Imhoff "two-story" tanks), chemical precipitation tanks and electrolytic treatment. The final processes considered embrace filtration or oxidation by means of slow sand, sprinkling or percolating, and contact filter beds; also aëration, as well as hypochlorite and ozone disinfection. There is also a brief chapter on small plants, for treating the sewage of residences and institutions.

By means of frequent references, condensations and oftentimes quite extensive extracts, the author brings to the reader a large amount of information from many scattered sources, all properly correlated with his own expository and critical remarks. The illustrations are few, compared with many other books, but they are well chosen and well rendered. Most of the chapters close with a brief résumé, which is one of the best features of the book. There is a full index.

Mr. Fuller's book is concerned with underlying principles and with what may be expected from their application, rather than with the actual engineering details of design and construction, although considerable attention is given to many of the elements of design. Throughout, the volume presents and interprets data impartially and judicially, but with no uncertainty where finality of opinion seems to be warranted. It is these features of the book, together with its clearness of exposition and its freedom from technicalities, where these can be awarded without "writing down," which make the book promise so much for the health officer, the physician and the layman and state official who wishes the latest authoritative information on sewage disposal.

Finally, the book may well be urged upon the attention of all those whose interest in measures to prevent water pollution has but lately been aroused, but who have not yet had or taken time to inform themselves upon the real nature and complexity of the sewage disposal problem, both in itself and in its relation to water supplies, the public health and the public purse.

The relatively small book by Professor Ogden and Mr. Cleveland appears to have been prepared to meet the present large demand for practical information on the design and construction of small sewage treatment plants for a single building or a small group of buildings. After a brief introduction, in which the problem of sewage treatment and the essentials to its solution are set forth, the authors take up settling tanks, valves and siphons, sub-surface irrigation, the various types of filters, broad irrigation and cost estimates. Little is said about sprinkling or percolating filters, which the authors do not regard as well suited for small installations.

The drawings presented are unusually clear and suggestive. The text is, as a rule, well calculated to inform the non-technical class of readers for whom the book is more particularly intended. Its contents might well aid in laying out works for a small village or group of isolated houses.

Doubtless the authors did not intend their book to be of the every-man-his-own-engineer class, for they of course realize that even the owner of a single house would, in 99 cases out of 100, save money and much trouble by engaging an engineer to design sewage treatment works for him. But many laymen find themselves in a position where such a book as this would be of great help to them, even if they finally called in an engineer. M. N. Baker.

Montclair, N. J.

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The Milk Question. By M. J. Rosenau. Boston and New York: Houghton-Mifflin Company. $2 net.

Originally delivered at Northwestern University as "The N. W. Harris Lectures" for 1912 the contents of this volume comprise a scientific, comprehensive, scholarly and up-to-date exposition of the milk problem in its relation to public and private health. The viewpoint, naturally, is that of hygiene and sanitation, but the economics of the subject and fair play for milk producers and sellers are repeatedly brought to the front.

After an introductory chapter the author takes up, with much detail, milk as food, dirty milk, the diseases caused by infected milk (tuberculosis, typhoid fever, scarlet fever, diphtheria, septic sore throat, etc.), clean milk and pasteurization. Then comes a brief chapter on infant mortality. The concluding chapter, "From Farm to Consumer," considers the farmer and the price of milk, the sanitary phases of milking the cow, the middleman, the care of milk in the household (an important but generally overlooked matter) milk grades, milk standards, various milk products, preservatives and many other subjects. A reference list of sixty-five entries and a good index complete the volume.

In his opening paragraph Professor Rosenau well says that the milk question, although "only one small part of the pure-food problem," which "in turn is only one chapter in the great book of hygiene and sanitation," is really a broad and deep question, and one which "pervades the whole domain of preventive medicine and touches many economic and social forces." In this spirit has the book before us been written. The solution of the milk problem, as expressed in the closing paragraphs of the book, is as follows:

> To keep milk clean, we need inspection. To render milk safe, we need pasteurization.
>
> Inspection goes to the root of the problem. Through an efficient system of inspection, the milk supply should be cleaner, better, fresher and safer. Inspection, however, has limitations. These limitations may be guarded against by pasteurization.
>
> A milk supply, therefore, that is both supervised and pasteurized is the only satisfactory solution of the problem.

Better than inspection and pasteurization, for infants, is mother's milk. This is well explained in the text and forcibly illustrated by a "Long and Short Haul" drawing. The "Long Haul" shows a long tube passing from a cow in a barn through a dozen or more intermediate stations, each with opportunity for infection, before it reaches the baby's bottle and then the baby itself. The 'Short Haul" can be guessed.

Thousands of lives and millions of dollars would be saved if this book could be given the wide circulation and close attention which it deserves. Members of health boards, family physicians, milk producers, middlemen, and dealers, and milk consumers of years and discretion, would profit by close study of the book. Women's Clubs in particular might well make the volume a subject for close study, to the end that their members would constitute themselves one great army of milk inspectors —for once the women insist on clean safe milk and become willing to pay a reasonable price for it the milk problem will be well-nigh solved. M. N. Baker.

Montclair, N. J.

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Majority Rule and the Judiciary. By William L. Ransom. New York. Charles Scribner's Sons, 1912. pp. xx, 183.

This little volume, by a well-known member of the New York bar, contains an interesting discussion of various matters connected with the recall of judges and the place of the judiciary in a system of popular government. While not an extremist in his views upon these subjects the author is in sympathy with the proposals to make judges and even judicial decisions subject to recall. He believes that a better adjustment in the constitutional relation of the courts to the law-making power is bound to come, and this before very many years have passed. It is his hope that such readjustment may be secured without an explosion such as might wreck the rightful prestige of the courts. The author contends that the Massachusetts policy of permitting the removal of judges by a majority vote of the legislature has impaired neither the independence nor the caliber of judges in that commonwealth. Therein he has read the history of Massachusetts aright; but it is to be remembered that in this matter the legislature of the Bay State has developed a tradition which seems to be quite as strong as a constitutional prohibition; for not once in the last thirty years has Massachusetts recalled a judge from office under this provision.

In discussing this whole matter of judicial recall and in pointing so frequently to the Massachusetts provision for removal by legislative action there is a point which Mr. Ransom and most other writers on the subject seem to overlook. That is the fact that this Massachusetts arrangement was borrowed from England where judges had long been subject to removal from office by the crown on an "address" from both houses of parliament. But the genesis of this provision in England is not to be found in any endeavor to facilitate the removal of judges. On the contrary it was brought into being by parliament in an endeavor to render the tenure of judges more secure, and to prevent their displacement for other than the soundest reasons.

On most of the matters which he deals with, Mr. Ransom is accurate as to his facts and fair in his conclusions. He has done us a real service in making clear just what supporters of that proposal mean by 'the recall of judicial decisions." The volume contains a spirited introduction by Colonel Roosevelt.

William Bennett Munro.

Harvard University.

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Handbook for Highway Engineers. By Wilson G. Harger and Edmund A. Bonney. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company.

The authors of this handbook, aided by thin paper, good typography and presswork have compressed into a real "pocketbook" a mass of information needed by engineers and contractors engaged in road building. At the same time they have given many facts and suggestions which would be useful to the layman who wishes to post himself on the design and construction of good roads. The volume, however, is not designed for laymen and a large part of its contents would be of no use to most of them. It is intended, the authors state, for inexperienced as well as experienced road builders. The authors, it may be added, are members of the engineering staff of the New York state department of highways and have drawn largely upon data pertaining to the extensive work of that department.

Without going far into the details of the contents of the *Handbook* it may be stated that it takes up, in order, grades and alinement, road sections, drainage, foundations and top courses for broken stone roads, and the various materials of construction, also surveys, office practice, cost data, and specifications. There are many pages of tables—for earthwork computation and for use in surveying and like calculations.

The volume promises to be a valuable addition to the rapidly growing list of indispensable engineers' handbooks. It is all the more welcome because it is the first one to be published solely for the benefit of the road engineer and contractor. It should be understood that city streets and pavements are not covered, except in so far as the various types of water-bound and bituminous-bound macadam are available for city use.

M. N. Baker.

Montclair, N. J.

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Housing Problems in America. Proceedings of the First National Conference on Housing. New York City, 1911.

The proceedings of the first annual conference on housing, now made available by the publication of this well-edited and printed volume, have a significance apart from the topics discussed in the very fact that this was the first conference of the sort. The president, Robert W. DeForest, calls attention in his opening address to the circumstance that the bringing together of men and women interested in this reform followed a half-century of work and agitation, and was the natural outcome of a spreading interest in the subject and increasing consciousness of its national scope. The papers and discussions range from broad and general subjects like city planning, presented by Frederick Law Olmsted, to severely practical details such as the disposal of garbage and rubbish and the abolition of the unsanitary privy vault. The impression that they make upon the reader might be expressed in the words of the health officer of Hamilton, Ontario: "I am delighted with everything I have heard—it is so practical." There is a notable absence of fads from the discussion and through all is apparent a healthy optimism, which neither blinks unsatisfactory conditions nor quails before them. A glance through the list of delegates is equally encouraging, as showing how widely representative they were, and how many agencies for human betterment stand behind them.

George Lynde Richardson.

Philadelphia.

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Landscape Gardening Studies. By Samuel Parsons. New York: John Lane Company, paper boards, 6x8½ inches; pp. 107, with many inserted plates, $1.50 net, postage 12 cents.

The high reputation of the author of this book leads to expectations in respect to its value which are not fully borne out in its examination. The preface, for instance, quite adequately outlines the work of the landscape architect, as might be expected, but it is followed at once by a chapter on the intimate detail of lawn-making, which is, even if admirable in its detail, simply a gardening essay. So, too, the first page of a chapter on evergreens introduces this subject most adequately and practically ends it, save for a mere nursery list of species. Throughout the book there is this constant intrusion of the details of garden work, which, while excellent in themselves and the result of a lifetime of practical experience, do not seem to fit the dignified and stated purpose of the book.

There is a chapter on rhododendrons which is a pleasing discussion of that great plant family, but it is not a landscape gardening study, nor is the account fully given in one chapter of Mrs. Russell Sage's mile of rhododendrons in Central Park, a landscape gardening study in the true sense.

Much more to the point of the title are the chapters describing St. Nicholas and Coney Island parks in New York, country places in Pennsylvania and Alabama, and several "homestead" parks. The long service of Mr. Parsons in the sometimes arduous work of maintaining Central Park in the heart of New York City naturally colors his utterances, and it is as a record of the difficulties surmounted in that work that this little volume has its highest value.

J. Horace McFarland.

Harrisburg, Pa.

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The Official South African Municipal Year Book. Edited by W. P. M. Henderson, assistant town clerk, Durban, and Francis G. Pay, Cape Town, 540 pp.

This volume contains the usual interesting statistics about the cities in Cape Province, Natal, the Transvaal, the Orange Free State and Rhodesia. It also contains a number of articles on special subjects including a digest of legal decisions affecting municipal corporations. There are also a number of unofficial articles on special subjects, as municipal abattoir and hygienic scientific removal. The volume contains in addition to the statistics the names of the chief officials. The illustrations deal mostly with mining plants and seem designed to reinforce the advertisements rather than the reading matter.

BOOKS RECEIVED

The Call of the New South. Addresses delivered at the Southern Sociological Congress, Nashville, Tenn., May 7–10, 1912. Edited by James E. McCulloch. Nashville: Southern Sociological Congress. 1912.

Child Labor in City Streets. By Edward N. Clopper. New York: The Macmillan Company. $1.25.

Civics for Foreigners. By Anna R. Plass. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company. 50 cents.

The Conservation of the Child. By Arthur Holmes, Ph.D. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company. $1.25.

The Evolution of Suffrage, the Remedy for the Evils of the Present Rudimentary Suffrage. By Frank J. Scott. New York: Longmans, Green and Company (Pamphlet.)

Fire Prevention. By Edward F. Croker. New York: Dodd, Mead and Company. $1.50.

The Government of American Cities. By William Bennett Munro. New York: The Macmillan Company. $2.25.

Guide to the United States for the Jewish Immigrant. A nearly literal translation of the second Yiddish edition. By John Foster Carr. Published under the auspices of the Connecticut Daughters of the American Revolution. 15 cents, postpaid, 20 cents.

Helping School Children. By Elsa Denison. New York: Harper and Brothers. $1.40 net.

Hygiene for Health Visitors, School Nurses and Social Workers. By C. W. Hutt. London: P. S. King and Son. 7/6 net.

Law Making in America. The Story of the 1911–12 Session of the Sixty-second Congress. By Lynn Haines. Bethesda, Md. Cloth, $1.00; paper, 65 cents.

Municipal Work from a Christian Standpoint. By A. W. Jephson. London: A. R. Mowbray and Company, Ltd. 18 pence.

The New Immigration. By Peter Roberts, Ph.D. New York: The Macmillan Company. $1.60 net.

Official Register and Directory of Women's Clubs in America. Helen M. Winslow, editor and publisher. Vol. XIV, 1912. Shirley, Mass. $1.50.

Party Organization and Machinery. By Jesse Macy. New York: The Century Company. $1.25.

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Railroads: Rates and Regulations. By William Z. Ripley. New York: Longmans, Green and Company. $3.00.

South America Observations and Impressions. By James Bryce. New York: The Macmillan Company. $2.50.

Street Pavements and Paving Materials. A manual of city pavements: The methods and materials of their construction. By George W. Tillson. New York: John Wiley and Sons. $4.00 net.

A Text-book on Roads and Pavements By Frederick P. Spalding. New York: John Wiley and Sons. $2.00 net.

Modern Philanthropy: A Study of Efficient Appealing and Giving. By William H. Allen. New York: Dodd, Mead and Company. $1.50.

NATIONAL
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THE NATIONAL MUNICIPAL LEAGUE AND THE NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW

BY RT. HONORABLE JAMES BRYCE, O.M.

British Ambassador to the United States

THE problems of municipal government in this country are among the most difficult with which its people has to deal, having regard to the extremely rapid growth of the cities and to the enormous influx into them of immigrants, many of whom do not know the language or understand the institutions of the country. There is, therefore, no field of inquiry in which exact knowledge of the facts and a scientific treatment of existing difficulties are more needed than in that of municipal administration, and I venture to believe that the work of the National Municipal League and the service rendered by the National Municipal Review as its organ may be very great. So much experience is already accumulating in all quarters with regard to the forms and working of municipal institutions, and the best methods of dealing with problems incident to vast populations crowded into the narrow limits of the city, that it is most important to have a journal in which this experience can be recorded and the results of it made available for the students of municipal problems. European experience is hardly less valuable in this respect than American. And just as American experience is valuable to Europe, so too is European experience valuable to America, and I am glad to think that such a journal as the Review exists to record for each continent what the other is doing.

THE MARCH OF DEMOCRACY IN MUNICIPALITIES

BY C. F. TAYLOR[1]

Philadelphia

WHEN the only artificial light was the tallow candle, and the source of water for household use was the spring, the well or the cistern, there were no "franchises" concerning these things. When manufacturing was done chiefly in the household and the blacksmith shop near by, hundreds of operatives did not hasten out of great factories at 6 p.m. to "catch a car" for a distant home. Local transportation was chiefly by foot, for the distances were short, though the streets were frequently very bad. Life was simple, both public and private, and public problems were few and simple.

The United States constitutional convention devised a certain form of government for the nation, which was copied by the states; and, as though the mind of man could devise nothing different for local needs, the same form was imposed upon our municipalities, and, in form of government, cities became miniature states or nations, each with its executive with his cabinet, and (as a rule) two legislative bodies.

But the similarity was only in form and not in authority, for the city was, and still is in most states, in bondage to the legislature, even regarding minute local affairs. The states have always been free in their local autonomy; without interference from congress, but cities have had to seek legislative permission even to stretch a wire across a street.

The discovery of gas and its distribution in pipes under public streets, the distribution of water in pipes under public streets, the laying of tracks on public streets for cars; all involved the use of public streets by private interests, as all these enterprises were undertaken by private companies; and in their nature these services were monopolies, for more than one track on one street was impossible or impracticable. Hence grants to companies were necessary, and these grants were in their nature monopolistic grants. These grants became known as "franchises," and it is fair to state that at first their value was not appreciated by anybody, unless it was by a few acute and far-seeing individuals who were more interested in obtaining these privileges for themselves than in educating the public concerning their value.

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[1] Dr. Charles F. Taylor has been interested in municipal affairs for many years. It was due to his public spirit that Frank Parsons's book *The City for the People* has received so widespread a circulation. He had 7000 copies of this printed and distributed to every considerable library in this country and to all the leading civicists. He has also edited the Equity Series which have had a wide circulation and which have had a distinct influence upon the movement for direct legislation.—EDITOR.

The great and growing value of public franchises in cities and the ease by which they could be obtained was perhaps the beginning of municipal corruption, and perhaps the cause of corruption extending through the entire local political structure, as the letting of contracts to favored contractors for street improvements, for the construction of public buildings, etc.

For many years the inefficiency and corruption of government in our cities was a disgrace to the nation, and this unsavory reputation became world wide. It did not occur to us that the cause might be in the structure of our local governments—that the plan conceived for a great nation, and adopted by states, might not "fit" cities. We attributed the unhappy condition to many causes, but not to the right cause, and the remedy universally advocated was "elect better men." That was tried time and again and in various places with indifferent or but temporary results. In the meantime, though unknown to us, the God of Terrors was preparing for us a vision—"a pillar of cloud by day and a pillar of fire by night" that would lead us out of the wilderness of inefficiency and corruption.

If ever a heart-breaking tragedy was a blessing in disguise, the Galveston horror of September 8, 1900, was one, though it seems cruel to think of it as such. A catastrophe so horrible a blessing? Impossible. Then let us construe it differently, and say that the Almighty overruled this calamity to our enlightenment.

The hurricane lashed the waters of the Gulf of Mexico into a fury and swept wave after wave over the helpless city, causing wreck and ruin almost beyond description, and the loss of many lives. The old-fashioned city government was incompetent to cope with such a situation, as was that of Chelsea, Massachusetts, after as great a calamity caused by fire in 1908. The test of a person or of an institution is in calamity. The constituted government in both these instances broke down.

Galveston found its salvation—its restoration and continuous efficient government to the present time—in a commission of five, in which was placed all the authority for municipal government, with division of executive duties among the commissioners. Under this commission the city has been remade—the grade of the entire city has been raised to a height thought to be safe from similar calamities, a protective sea wall has been built, and many other vast improvements have been made, all with a far-seeing wisdom, a wonderful efficiency and without a suspicion of "graft."

Houston, forty miles away, observing the wonderful progress of her once stricken sister under the new form of government, began to plan to follow her example. In December, 1904, the new charter was adopted by popular vote, and in March, 1905, it was granted to the city by the state legislature.

In Galveston there are no provisions for popular control of the commissioners, except as to bond issues, but this need has not been felt there, because of the superior and public-spirited men fortunately chosen, and the activity of a city club whose influence is powerful in the affairs of the city. Bond issues must be authorized by a majority of the qualified electors who are tax payers. Houston requires that bond issues of over $100,000 must be submitted to tax paying voters, and also makes the distinct addition to the Galveston plan of requiring a referendum on franchises on the demand of 500 voters, and franchises for more than thirty years *must* be submitted to popular vote without the necessity of a petition. Here we see a decided advance step in practical democracy.

The next decided step (we might call it a "jump") in practical democracy as applied to municipal affairs, was taken by Des Moines, Iowa, in 1908, extending the referendum to ordinances, as well as to bond issues and franchises, and adding the initiative and recall, adding these to the Galveston commission plan. Since then, these three graces, the initiative, referendum and recall, the trinity of democracy, have usually gone hand in hand with the commission form of municipal government in its remarkable sweep from the gulf to the great lakes, and from ocean to ocean.

This outline is painfully brief, but the details of commission government with all its accompaniments may be found in that extremely useful book, *Commission Government in American Cities*, by Ernest S. Bradford, Ph.D. The purpose here is not to dwell on commission government *per se*, but to trace the march of local democracy, and to present what seem to be its immediate prospects. And let it here be clearly stated that while the initiative, referendum and recall are not necessary parts of nor accompaniments to the commission form of municipal government, a happy association of this democratic trinity and the commission idea has been formed, so that one may now say to the other, like Ruth to Naomi, "Whither thou goest, I will go." Indeed this association caused the "Des Moines plan" to take the place of the "Galveston plan" in the minds of municipal reformers all over the country.[2]

We have been sounding an optimistic note. Now we must sound a minor strain. Look at a map of the United States with the commission governed cities dotted upon it, and we will see great states like New York,

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[2] The great popularity of the initiative, referendum and recall in commission governed cities may be seen by a glance at the tables on pages 273 to 277 of Bradford's book above mentioned, where over 150 cities and towns are tabulated, almost all of which have the initiative, referendum and recall. That was up to August, 1911. Up to February 1, 1913, the number was 222, with an increasing proportion having the initiative, referendum and recall.

Pennsylvania, Ohio and Indiana without a redeeming dot! Ah. The domination of legislatures over the cities of this great nation! The bondage of cities! "Home rule" is an issue and a need in our cities as well as in Ireland.

But the cloud is not so dark as the reader might judge from the paragraph just written. In 1911 a large degree of freedom was given to the cities and towns of New Jersey, and many of them have availed themselves of the provisions of the general act then passed by the legislature of that state. In 1911 the legislature gave to Pittsburgh an improved government, but much inferior to that of the commission cities that we have referred to, and without the initiative, referendum or recall. In September, 1912, Ohio adopted a home rule constitutional amendment, and many of the cities and towns in that state are now actively engaged in revising their charters. Several cities in New York have actually adopted by popular vote improved charters and are now awaiting permission from the legislature to put them into operation, while powerful influences in that great state are working for a general act better than any now in operation in any state, which will apply to all the cities in New York State except New York City. It is our anxious and enthusiastic hope that this act may pass the legislature during the present session. And the legislature of Indiana must do some artful dodging if it shall avoid passing the bill now before it providing for the "business" form of municipal government. The Pennsylvania legislature refused in 1911 to pass Senator Clark's bill providing for commission government with the initiative and referendum in third class cities (up to 100,000 in population), but the good senator was returned by a greatly increased majority, and he is now in Harrisburg with his bill, improved, and it seems probable that the hand of tyranny reaching from Harrisburg to the throat of every municipality in the great Keystone state will soon be at least relaxed, if not removed.

These are only samples of the great activity in the field of municipal democracy now in progress all over the United States. But these samples are taken from the darkest places. The light of democracy is rapidly coming, which will banish the darkness.

Here we are tempted to pronounce an apostrophe to democracy, the light bearer, the deliverer from bondage, the Goddess of Liberty! But let us restrain ourselves and consider quietly and deliberately the question, What *is* democracy? In answering this question we will avoid the words of the dictionary and consider rather the larger essence.

On close scrutiny we find that in essence democracy does *not* consist in the number of candidates we are permitted to vote for, nor in the frequency of voting. The object of government is honesty and efficiency in the management of public affairs in harmony with the popular will; and to secure these is the purpose of democracy. The method of securing these most certainly, most easily, most promptly and least expensively is the concern of democracy.

Democracy does not wish to divorce itself from representative government, but it *does* demand the possibility of ultimate popular control of its affairs and its officers; and it demands adequate machinery for accomplishing these ends when occasion may arise. Democracy is unthinkable without the possibility of ultimate control by the electorate. The initiative and referendum are the means for controlling public affairs by the voters, and the recall is the means of controlling officers. Democracy insists upon possessing these instrumentalities as a primary right. But it wishes representative government to be so improved and perfected that it will meet the wishes and demands of democracy so faithfully and perfectly that the instruments of primary democracy, the initiative, referendum and recall, will seldom or never be called into operation. Representative government is the improved and labor saving machine which we wish to use and will use as long as it is truly representative. But the moment that it fails to do its work truly and faithfully, we insist upon the privilege of falling back upon the more cumbersome, but always true machinery until the new machine shall again "ring true" and do its work faithfully.

Democracy does not wish to be officious. Democracy welcomes the short ballot as an improvement in the machinery of democracy—an improvement by which the purposes of democracy may be achieved more directly and more easily than by the confusing maze of the long ballot. Commission government of cities gives a much shorter ballot than the old form of government, and democracy welcomes it because experience proves that it better accomplishes the purpose of democracy—good government.

Democracy emphasizes methods, because, other things being equal, the best methods produce the best results. The commission plan of municipal government was a vast improvement *in method* over the old style; hence very welcome to democracy, but never entirely safe without the initiative, referendum and recall being associated with it. But the commission plan as at present practised does not satisfy advanced thinkers. The commissioners are elected by the city at large (so far, so good), but by the *block vote,* which leaves large masses of voters unrepresented. The commissioners have a plurality or a majority of voters behind them, but the block vote ("vote for five") puts the same voters behind every commissioner. The single vote ("vote for one") would procure better representation, but one or two popular candidates may have majorities so large that the lowest successful candidate may go in with a very small vote. The single *transferable* vote with multiple choices (the "Hare" or some similar system) would give a unanimous constituency, instead of a majority or plurality constituency, to each commissioner, thus leaving no part of the electorate unrepresented. This system is erroneously called "proportional representation," because in partizan contests it *may*, and if desired *will*, return elected representatives in proportion to the numerical strength of the parties entering the contest. In municipal government we discourage partizan contests; but *if* party strife should enter a municipal contest, the block vote is far more dangerous than the Hare system, because all the commissioners elected would belong to the same party. And, particularly for municipal purposes, let us cease to call the Hare system a method of producing proportional representation, but rather a method of *effective voting*, by which every voter may express his true preferences without "throwing away" his vote, and a method which will place a *unanimous* constituency behind every elected commissioner.

This method will reduce democracy to a single effective vote; but if the writer may be considered a champion of democracy, he is satisfied with it, because, by that plan *every vote is effective;* and the plan will produce results highly satisfactory to democracy.

Other features of the commission plan as now practised are now under scrutiny; as, shall the commissioners themselves be heads of departments? or shall they be prominent men of superior judgment who shall not be expected to devote their time to administrative work, but who shall only determine policies and select administrative officers and supervise their work—perhaps only one such officer, a "city manager." We mention these things only to say that they are not inconsistent with democracy so long as we have the democratic trinity as a basis and as a refuge in case of need, but always hoping that the need will not come.

THE MUNICIPAL HEALTH PROBLEM[1]

BY M. N. BAKER[2]

Montclair, N. J.

IN an ideal city every inhabitant would be guarded at every point from menace to life or health by causes beyond his control and would be so instructed by one means or another as to make it readily possible for him to guard himself against dangers which are within his individual control. The health problem of today is how to make this ideal a reality. As will be seen, the problem is two-fold. It includes matters affecting the health of the community as a whole which must be controlled in turn by the city as a whole and matters which concern the individual alone and must in large measure be controlled by him. In other words, the problem is one of public health and of private health.

For the present at least, the health of the individual, in so far as it depends on his own action or lack of action, must be left to him, except in so far as he is instructed by the state or the city how to conserve his health.

How to instruct the individual so that he can guard himself against all menaces to health which are within his control is an educational problem which as yet has been given scarcely any attention, but it undoubtedly will be the basis of a large part of the public health work of the future. If time permitted, it would be possible to show that if each person were thoroughly instructed in health protection and lived up to his knowledge the public health problem would be greatly simplified if not entirely solved.

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[1] Municipal health and sanitation is a subject to which the National Municipal League has been giving attention since 1907 when it created a committee on the subject as a result of the all-day conference held in connection with the Providence meeting. Dr. Alexander C. Abbott of Philadelphia was the first chairman and in 1909 was succeeded by M. N. Baker who has made yearly reports of great value and helpfulness. The paper presented at the Los Angeles meeting to which this is a note represents an important constructive contribution to the whole problem. Other reports presented by Mr. Baker deal with the questions of "Municipal Health Problems and the General Public" and "City and State Boards of Health and the Proposed Federal Department of Health." He has also contributed a paper in regard to the board of health of Montclair, N. J. The question has also been discussed by others, among the more important contributions being: "Work for Personal and Public Hygiene in Rochester," Dr. George W. Goler; "Sanitation in Providence," Dr. Charles C. Chapin; "Chicago's Municipal Sanitation," Dr. William A. Evans; "Health and Sanitation in the District of Columbia," William Creighton Woodward, M.D.; "Public Health and Municipal Sanitation in Cleveland," William Travis Howard, M.D.; "The Relation of Municipal Sanitation to the State and the National Government," Dr. Charles O. Probst, Columbus, Ohio; "The Work of Boards of Health," George A. Soper, Ph.D.; "Economy and Efficiency in Municipal Health Administration Work," Selskar M. Gunn.—C. R. W.

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Certainly this would be the case if each person followed the golden rule by doing unto others in health matters as he would have them do to him: that is, if he refrained from any action which would endanger the health of others.

Considering the extent to which the curricula of our schools and colleges are already overburdened, one hesitates to urge that it should be the duty of our educational institutions to give each pupil full instruction regarding the preservation of his health, in so far as this is practicable. Yet it may well be asked what kind of education could be more valuable than this.

Two difficulties arise at this point: one is that few persons live up to their present limited knowledge of health conservation so that if everyone who passes through our schools and colleges were fully instructed how to guard his health, but few would make full use of this knowledge. The other is that a large proportion of the population has already passed beyond or never been benefited by instruction in the schools and in the universities. Moreover, all knowledge is ever progressing, so the health education problem does not cease with the reception of the school or college diploma.

The best we can expect to do for the present and immediate future is to make sure that during his school life every youth be thoroughly instructed in the principles of public and private health and that beyond this there be made readily available to every person by means of public lectures and printed matter such instruction in health protection as he can utilize. This does not mean that every person is to become his own physician, but merely that he shall be informed as to those things which he should do or not do for the protection of his health.

Education aside, the health protective work of the municipality is concerned with protecting the individual from dangers to health and life which are beyond his control. Intelligent effort is dependent upon clear and exact knowledge of what these dangers are. A large part of the health protective work of our cities is misdirected because of lack of this knowledge. This misdirected work may be essential to the comfort and convenience of the citizens but it falls properly in other city departments by which it can be performed more efficiently. By confining its efforts to its own proper field a health department will gain in efficiency and will have less difficulty in securing the necessary funds for its work.

The chief menace to health beyond the control of the individual and within the domain of the health department is infection by the germs of some communicable disease. It, therefore, follows that the primary work of a municipal health department should be the control of communicable diseases. Since all infection of this kind springs from an individual suffering from one of these diseases the fight should be concentrated on controlling the diseases at their source. This means the promptest possible identification of every person suffering from or harboring the germs of any communicable disease and the establishment and continuance of such means of control as will prevent the spread of infection to others. These facts are more or less fully recognized by all municipal health officers worthy the name, but as yet they are little appreciated by the general public and for this and other reasons are not made the basis of full and proper remedial or preventive action by every health department of the country.

The spread of communicable diseases from persons harboring disease germs is by direct or by indirect routes of infection. If attending physicians, nurses and responsible heads of families as well as the patients themselves did their full duty in preventing the escape of infectious material, both direct and indirect infection would be reduced to very small proportions. It is the special province of the health department to see that this is done. If every health department did its full duty in this respect a large part of the other work which health departments now attempt to do would be unnecessary.

Indirect infection from communicable diseases spreads chiefly by the pollution of water, milk and other food supplies, the air, various household utensils and the clothing and bedding of the patient. This pollution, as already stated, arises through improper control or lack of control of the person infected. A considerable amount of infection both direct and indirect springs from undiagnosed cases of disease or from persons who are harboring disease germs without injury to themselves. Because of these facts there will always be more or less infection of water and food supplies, but this infection will diminish as the sum total of infectious disease is reduced by health protective work. For a long time to come it will be necessary to guard water and food supplies from possible unidentified sources of infection and in some cases to install and operate works for the removal or destruction of such disease germs as may have gained access to foods and drinks, particularly water and milk supplies. These works of purification or destruction should not as a rule be operated by health departments, although some of them may very properly be inspected by these departments. Reasons for this statement will be given later.

Closely associated with the control of communicable diseases is the reduction of infant mortality. As is well known, many of the communicable diseases make their attack early in life and have as their chief harvest infants and young children. To control communicable diseases, therefore, is to reduce infant mortality in large degree, but even after deducting the attacks from communicable diseases upon children there remains a heavy slaughter of the innocents. The prevention or reduction of this slaughter by agencies outside the control of communicable diseases should be one of the chief efforts of every health department. This is not the time nor place to present and discuss statistics of infant mortality. The subject is mentioned in order to lay emphasis upon the fact that the control of communicable diseases and the reduction of infant mortality are two lines of work which demand the chief attention of our municipal health departments today, both because of the large number of deaths in these two classes and because work in these two fields may be made tellingly effective and can be measured in terms of lives saved, whereas work in most of the other lines attempted by boards of health in America is vague and indefinite, and if it yields any results worthy of the effort, the results are uncertain and cannot be recorded in vital statistics, which are the chief means of testing the efficiency of health protective work.

This brings me to one of the main points of my discussion, which is the need of better means than are now employed by most municipal health departments to judge the efficiency of their work. This subject has been brought home to me with increasing emphasis during the eighteen years of my connection with a local board of health. Properly classified, complete and accurate vital statistics show better than anything else the health of the community from year to year and if properly studied in connection with the various lines of health protective work they should indicate the efficiency or inefficiency of the work. They should also indicate, and this is of great importance, whether or not the funds placed at the disposal of the health department are being wisely distributed among the several branches of work.

After much study I have concluded that the efficiency of municipal health departments could be greatly increased by a classification of their annual expenditures in such a way as to show clearly from year to year the amounts of money spent to achieve specific objects. The classification should, so far as possible, be designed to measure the cost of results achieved and show their effect upon vital statistics. Such a classification is properly named functional. In a tentative classification of this kind which I formulated, all health board expenditures were first divided into (I) Direct health-protective work; (II) Indirect or remote health-protective work; and (III) General; the latter to include such overhead and other expenses as are not readily distributed between the first two classes.

Under (I) or direct health-protective work were placed first the prevention and control of communicable diseases; second the reduction of infant mortality, and third, general health building and maintenance. Each of these three main subdivisions is still further divided, as may be seen by the detailed schedule given at the end of this paper.

Indirect or remote health-protective work includes a large variety of undertakings, some of which are rarely placed under boards of health and all of which should and will I hope ultimately be placed in other municipal departments. These undertakings may all be described as cleansing operations and I have divided them into municipal cleansing and private cleansing. Under municipal cleansing are placed the collection and disposal of garbage, ashes, rubbish and other associated refuse, street dirt and sewage. I have also put here smoke prevention, fly, mosquito and rat reduction. Under private cleansing I have placed all matters pertaining to the control of plumbing and suppression of smells and various other nuisances.

It may seem either radical or reactionary, according to one's point of view, to class these various undertakings as indirect or remote health-protective work. In a well organized scheme of municipal administration, some of these undertakings should unquestionably be placed under other departments than the one designed to safeguard public health, even though they have more or less effect upon health, while others are chiefly matters of comfort or convenience. Most of the operations under indirect or remote health-protective work involve the expenditure of large sums of money in the employment and direction of many employees for the conduct of public works which, as already suggested, can be more efficiently administered by other departments. In so far as these cleansing operations have any considerable effect upon the public health it will be sufficient if the health department inspects the work and insists upon its proper performance. Sewerage and sewage disposal and street cleaning and sprinkling are not often entrusted to health departments, but since this is done in some cases, they have been inserted in this list. The collection and disposal of garbage is often entrusted to the health department, but it has nothing like the vital relation to public health that sewerage and sewage disposal have, which are seldom placed under the health department, and still less than the public water supply, which is almost never administered by the public health department. The fact of the matter is that if everything directly and indirectly affecting public health were to be placed under the health department it would embrace nearly every line of municipal activity. Progressive health officers and sanitarians are becoming more and more firmly of the opinion that the work of health departments should be restricted to the control of communicable diseases, the reduction of infant mortality and such other work of general inspection and supervision as will hold other municipal departments, private corporations and individuals up to their duty in the way of providing pure water, pure milk and other foods, unadulterated and otherwise safe drugs, proper housing, and the regulation of other environmental conditions affecting the health of the individual citizen and of the people as a whole.

It should be understood that the classification of health board expenditures which I have proposed is not only tentative, but is also subject to regrouping to meet the widely differing local conditions which prevail in the different parts of the country. For instance, fly, mosquito or rat reduction in some large sections of the country would make for the comfort and convenience of the public, while in others it would have a vital relation to public health. The suppression of such pests or nuisances might, therefore, be classed under indirect health-protective work in one city, for the time being at least, because, ultimately, under proper municipal and private cleansing, flies, mosquitoes and rats will cease to exist or will fall in numbers to a tolerable, irreducible minimum which would have no effect upon public health. Finally, so far as this phase of my subject is concerned, it should be understood that my tentative classification of health board expenditures, while available as a possible general basis of a system of accounting, is designed chiefly to point out the need for the formulation and adoption of some classification which shall show whether the funds available to a health department, which are often far less than it needs, are being wisely apportioned among the different objects of expenditure and whether some of the money now used for remote or even doubtful health-protective work might not far better be used for work which has direct bearing upon the conservation of health and the prolongation of life.

An important and difficult phase of the municipal health problem which should never be lost sight of is how well-trained and efficient health officers, with their various classes of assistants, are to be secured and retained in office. Until recently, there have been no schools for the training of health officers in the United States. The schools recently established are far too few in number and most of them fail to offer the courses needed for the efficient training of health officers and sanitary inspectors. While this is a true and deplorable condition and one which we should all aim to remedy as rapidly as possible the fact should not be lost sight of that many of our cities are not employing as health officers and inspectors the best of the men available for the work. All friends of good and efficient municipal government and all interested in the maintenance of public health should unite in an effort to secure and retain the best available men for the public health service and to set higher and higher standards of education and efficiency. The medical, engineering, biological and chemical schools of the country will most assuredly respond to an increasing demand for more, and for better trained, health officers.

Thoughtful consideration should be given to the place occupied by the health department in the general scheme of municipal government. This has already been suggested in so far as the work of the department is concerned, but such questions remain as whether the department should be headed by a board or by a single officer and whether the department should be independent of, or subordinate to, other branches of the city government. For progressive, fearless work there is little question but that organization as an independent department with legislative as well as executive powers is the best plan. This would be inconsistent with some schemes of municipal government, including the commission plan, which makes the commission the fountain-head of all authority. Possibly the sacrifice resulting from making a health department subordinate instead of independent may be offset by other benefits resulting from a scheme of absolutely centralized government. But if a health department is to be a subordinate branch of the city government and particularly if it is to possess no legislative power, efficiency demands a single executive head.

It goes without saying that the health officer like the head of any purely executive department should be appointed not elected to office. For the greatest efficiency of his department he should have power to appoint and dismiss all his subordinates, subject only to such limits as may be imposed by civil service regulations. Whether or not the chief executive health officer should be chosen by civil service examinations is a question open to discussion and the same is true only in a lesser degree of his chief assistants, at least in the larger cities of the country. If, however, permanence of tenure or continuance in office during efficiency and good behavior is possible in no other way then by all means the chief executive health officer and all his assistants should be under the civil service.

It may not be amiss to call attention to the fact that under the new Los Angeles charter as tentatively drafted the chief executive health officer is only one of a presumably large number of city officials subordinate to the commissioner of public welfare. He will be nominated by the commissioner who serves as mayor and his nomination must be confirmed by the commission as a whole. He will, therefore, be nominally under the control of one and actually under the control of seven, while at the same time he will be under special obligations to the mayor who alone can nominate him to office. Under the Los Angeles charter, legislation affecting the public health, like all other legislation, is under the direct control of the legal voters of the city through the initiative and the referendum. The commission can, of course, enact such health legislation as it chooses, but this will always be subject to veto by popular vote. Under such conditions, the position of the executive health officer, if he be a well trained, well informed, progressive and fearless man, will unquestionably be beset with many difficulties and some obstacles which will be unsurmountable, or at least unsurmountable for many years. In many much needed health reform measures he will first have to educate the commissioner of public welfare, then a majority of the commission and finally, if the referendum is invoked on health ordinances, a majority of the voters of the city. In addition, the chief health officer and presumably his assistants are to be subject to the recall.

I mention these undeniable facts not to condemn the commission plan in general or the commission plan in its application to Los Angeles, but merely to call attention to them as conditions which must be met in the future health protective work of the city. I do not undertake the task of comparing health department conditions under the proposed charter with those which prevail under the present charter. The comparison, if any were drawn, should be with an ideal system of municipal health organization.

One of the great underlying principles of the commission plan is that the people should rule. Fundamentally desirable as this may be, no one who advocates democratic government carried to its extreme should forget that rule by the people, especially in a large city—to confine the statement to municipal health administration—gives the most ignorant foreigner lately naturalized an equal vote on health-protective matters with the physician, the engineer and the sanitarian who has given all his mature years to the study of measures for the conservation and prolongation of life. If the inherent rights of humanity demand this, it is imperative that no effort should be spared to select and retain in office the very highest grade of public health officials obtainable and to keep them free from sinister influences of whatever kind so that they will exercise such powers as are conferred upon them by the people without fear or favor and in accordance with the latest teachings of sanitary science and public health.

If the mass of the voters are to legislate in public health matters it becomes doubly important that every citizen, as suggested at the outset of this paper, be thoroughly instructed in the principles of public health. This makes the health educational problem one of vital importance. The educational problem is of vital importance under any scheme of municipal or state government which may prevail since upon the intelligence and the morals of the public at large and each individual composing it the health of the public and the individual alike depend. The health department, like the police department, would scarcely be a necessity if every citizen was educated to high standards of knowledge of health and of morals and lived up to both standards.

FUNCTIONAL CLASSIFICATION OF HEALTH BOARD EXPENDITURES SUGGESTED BY M. N. BAKER, AUGUST, 1911

I Direct health-protective work
  1. Prevention and control of communicable diseases
    a. Laboratory
    b. Notification and investigation
    c. Immunization
    d. Isolation in the home
    e. Hospitalization
    f. Disinfection
    g. Medical school inspection—for communicable diseases
    h. Records
    i. Educational
  2. Reduction in infant mortality
    a. Medical
    b. Nursing
    c. Supplying milk, etc.

        - *d.* Records
        - *e.* Educational
    - 3. General health-building and maintenance
        - *a.* Laboratory
        - *b.* Physical and mental inspection of school children
        - *c.* Housing control
        - *d.* Factory inspection
        - *e.* Milk control
        - *f.* Pure food and drugs
        - *g.* Pure water
        - *h.* Pure air
            - Ventilation
            - Gas inspection
- II Indirect or remote health-protective work
    - 1. Municipal cleansing
        - *a.* Garbage
        - *b.* Ashes
        - *c.* Rubbish
        - *d.* Dead animals
        - *e.* Offal and market refuse
        - *f.* Night soil
        - *g.* Sewage
        - *h.* Street cleaning and sprinkling
        - *i.* Smoke prevention
        - *j.* Fly reduction
        - *k.* Mosquito reduction
        - *l.* Rat reduction
        - *m.* Records
        - *n.* Educational
        - *o.* publicity
    - 2. Private cleansing
        - *a.* Plumbing permits and inspection
        - *b.* Suppression of smells and miscellaneous nuisances
- III General—so far as not distributable under heads and sub-heads of II and III
    - 1. Records
        - *a.* Vital statistics
        - *b.* Accounting
        - *e.* Miscellaneous
    - 2. Research
    - 3. Publicity
    - 4. Legal
    - 5. General supplies—including rent, water, light, heat, etc.
    - 6. Administrative salaries

Distribute under each head and sub-head, as far as practicable, every such item as salaries, supplies (including freight, express and cartage), transportation, publicity, communication (postage, telephone, telegraph), educational, research, legal, records, etc. Sums that cannot be so distributed, which should be comparatively few and small, go under III, General, but even here they should not go under "miscellaneous" or "unclassified."

Communicable diseases, items *a* to *f*, should preferably be given separately for each disease, or at least for typhoid fever, scarlet fever, diphtheria and tuberculosis.

This classification is easily expanded by further classification to any extent desired, and it may be simplified even more readily by omitting all the sub-heads designated by letters or still further by using only the three grand divisions I, II and III. In either case of simplification the sub-heads not used as separate accounts would serve as a guide to such of the classifications or accounts as were retained

CONSTRUCTIVE HOUSING REFORM

BY CAROL ARONOVICI, PH.D.[1]

Philadelphia

THE wide spread and far reaching movement in the direction of improving the character and conditions of our housing accomodations as carried on in the United States may be characterized as an effort to improve and control existing evils, rather than as a broad social movement towards far reaching housing reform. The accomplishments of the last decade and a half center about the individual dwelling as a thing apart from the community, while the complicated legislative and administrative machinery provided is intended as a means of dealing with a fixed minimum of safety and sanitation regardless of the effect that such minimum may have upon the community as a whole both socially and economically.

The reason for this failure to meet adequately and permanently a momentous problem should not be sought in the indifference of the public, nor in the lack of appreciation on the part of legislators and social reformers of the importance of dealing with the housing problem promptly and adequately, but in the fundamental error so frequent in reform work: namely a lack of careful and extensive study of the causes of the problem and the undertaking of changes and improvements on a broad, scientific basis. Instead of asking "what shall we do with the tenement" we should ask "why the tenement?" instead of centering our entire attention upon restrictive and almost confiscatory legislation intended to reduce the evil we should endeavor to provide adequate answers to the questions that relate to the causes that make housing evils possible and necessary, instead of dealing with structural defects and the revolting evils attending them we should attempt to use this knowledge as an incentive to investigation which will strike at the very root of the evil, so that fundamental principles may be discovered and lasting reform secured.

We do not propose in the present article to offer a complete study of the fundamental causes of the housing problem and the principles that underly them. All we can hope to do is to suggest a more or less broad outline for future study, with a view to meeting the essential requirements of constructive housing reform.

Hundreds of cities in the United States have within recent years made studies of their housing conditions, or rather housing evils, and the writer is responsible for more than a score of such studies. With very few exceptions these studies present material that bears mainly upon sanitary conditions. The recommendations and final action on the part of private citizens as well as legislative and administrative departments of city and state governments have been mainly of a sanitary character. This was unavoidable. The vast literature available in this country has dealt with conditions rather than causes. The reforms, if reforms they may be called, have been the natural outcome of the point of view of those interested and supposedly best informed leaders in the movement. Even the most widely known and most authoritative book published in the United States within recent years bearing the title *Housing Reform* is mainly a dissertation on "lobbying" for housing legislation. It lacks the vision of the German studies where such splendid results have been accomplished within recent years, and where the housing problem has been recognized as being the result of the lack of foresight in the building of our cities. As cities are the "hope of democracy" and the home of civilization providing adequate homes is the foremost duty of the state and the city. These provisions should be placed upon a sound economic basis since the quality of the homes occupied by the mass of the people is largely determined by economic factors.[2]

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[1] General secretary, Suburban Planning Association, Philadelphia. Dr. Aronovici is director of the national bureau of municipal and social service and has within recent years been employed as an expert on housing in over a score of New England cities.

Before we enter upon the discussion of the requirements of proper housing accomodations and their relation to the community two important facts should be pointed out in order to emphasize the difference between the problem abroad and the problem as it exists in the United States.

The Americans of the present day, I mean that amalgamation of races and nationalities, the opportunity-seeking multitude living under the American flag, are not home builders. The country is growing too rapidly and opportunities are coming into being in such new and varied sections of the country, that stability is impossible and home building hazardous. In other words the constant shifting of industries and the lack of stability of employment compel many of the wage earners to move on and on until we are facing the problem of housing a vast army of *nomad industrial herds* which follow the trail of migrating industy, invade cities and towns and endanger the economic, sanitary and moral standards of comunities.

Another factor in the housing problem in America is immigration which taxes the housing capacity of the oldest and best established communities to a point where health is endangered and a general lowering of the physical and moral fiber of the people results.

To draw the comparison a little closer, it should be said that the cities of Europe are facing a problem of housing due to a general rise in the standard of living and a gradual normal growth of the population closely related to and with a real love for place of birth. In America the housing problem, due to a normal increase in population and a rise in standards among the natives, is seriously aggravated by immigration and a spasmodic and dangerous shifting of population from one center to another.

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[2] Posadowsky: *Die Wohnungsfrage als Kulturprobleme.* Ernest Reinhardt, Pub., 1910.

Prof. Dr. L. Pohle: *Die Wohnungsfrage,* vol. i, p. 6, 1910.

For the sake of clearness we have endeavored to define constructive housing reform. The definition is as follows: *The providing of healthful accommodations, adequately provided with facilities for privacy and comfort, easily accessible to centers of employment, culture and amusement, accessible from the centers of distribution of the food supply, rentable at reasonable rates and yielding a fair return on the investment.*

This definition differs from the usual conception of housing reform in the recognition of the economic factor and in the socializing element which regards the individual home in organic relationship to the business of life and labor in the community. Let us consider each phase of the problem as presented in the definition in the order given.

Healthful accommodations. This is an age of fighting disease and protecting health. Pure food laws, national health departments, open air schools, medical school inspection, limited hours of labor for women and children, protection against accident are the order of the day. Human life is becoming more and more valuable and its preservation is gradually taking place among the positive sciences. It is easily conceivable therefore that housing reform should have been made a subsidiary of a large health movement. The failure of housing reform solely as a health movement is the natural outcome of a narrow vision and its consequent limited method of procedure.

The sum total of all reform work leading towards improved sanitary conditions in the home has found its most potent expression in legislation and the administrative machinery provided for its enforcement. This sanitary legislation has been so exacting and far reaching that it has been mistaken for the whole of housing reform. That the fundamental principle of this legislation has been prohibitory and restrictive goes without saying, since little legislation intended to promote and encourage good conditions is ever passed by our state or national legislature. We have come to a common agreement that the tenement or multiple dwelling is undesirable and we have proceeded to legislate against it, emphasizing the evils of the large city and forgetting the smaller communities. The result has been that we have driven the tenement builder out of the city and have permitted him to infest the smaller communities. We have placed confiscatory regulations upon the large dwelling and have thereby reduced the number of such buildings without providing a substitute in the form of subsidies or other means for fostering the building of the single and more desirable dwelling. The result of this method of procedure has been a rapid increase in the rental rates with increase in the cost of construction and a limiting of the supply of homes necessitated by an abnormal increase in population; a condition that has further helped to raise the rental rates.

The fact that most of the restrictive legislation is confined to the new structures and leaves the old and dilapidated building under the control of regulations that do not go beyond a minimum standard of safety and sanitation has encouraged the continued maintenance of old and ill adapted dwellings which have proved a strong competitor of the builder of sanitary homes.

We have no fault to find with the present agitation for the securing of comprehensive and enforceable housing legislation. Many of the laws already in force are models of the art of law making, but they fall short because they meet only part of the problem and place a premium upon the structure that is old and least desirable for the purposes for which it is used. If the rights of private property make strict legislation for the control of old houses impossible, some advantages should be placed in the hands of the builder of new and sanitary houses so that he may not suffer through unfair competition created by one sided restrictions.

Privacy and comfort. As in the case of health, privacy and comfort are provided for in the laws now in force throughout the country. That the standards set by these laws are not above a minimum no one doubts, but that even this minimum when not coupled with favorable conditions for its attainment is an increased financial burden upon the tenant can not be doubted. To what extent rents are affected by a rise in the standards of privacy and comfort when provided by law little is known although it is an aspect of the problem that should commend itself to the attention of housing reformers, as a condition that must be met on a purely economic basis.

Accessibility to place of employment.—The experience of New York City, where factories have made their homes in the most congested section of the city in order to be within easy reach of the labor supply indicates that there is a close relationship between the location of the home and the place of employment. The congestion of population that is becoming more and more serious in our cities further emphasizes a tendency of which New York is the most flagrant example.

How to meet the problem of accessibility to the labor market and centers of employment has not been the concern of the housing reformer, and yet the lower east side of New York and many of the slums of our larger and even the smaller cities and towns are largely the result of an inadequate distribution of manufacturing plants and the absence of easy means of intercommunication provided either by intelligent community planning or cheap and efficient means of transit. That the wage earner and his family have followed the line of least resistance should not be a matter of surprise or criticism. A low wage and a long working day are important considerations in determining the distance between the place of employment and the home. Especially is this true where the transportation system is inadequate and requires an hour or two out of the limited leisure of the wage earner during which time he is packed into stuffy cars with not wholly dependable time schedules.

Recently a hopeful tendency has developed among manufacturing concerns. Many of them are moving out of the congested parts of our large cities to smaller communities or into the open country. This removal is due to an increased demand for the expansion of business which is made impossible by the high cost of land in the congested sections of our cities. The removal of the manufacturing plant from the center of population and the supply of labor to sparsely settled districts is extremely interesting. It follows soon after the exodus of the country folk to the city has taken place. This game of hide and seek between labor and employment centers shows how full of blunders our process of community building is. It is now time for the housing reformer to follow up the industrial exodus countryward with a housing policy which will avoid the congestion created by the same industries in the city and lay the foundation for a community planning policy that will keep the multiple dwelling out of the open country and allow the light to shine in every room and grass to grow about every home that is to be built.

That an efficient and cheap transportation system is essential to a reduction of congestion is obvious. In the newer communities however and those which have not been fully developed as industrial centers a community plan carefully distributing homes and industry and taking advantage of every opportunity for the reduction of distances without increasing congestion is the only safe means so far discovered that can and will render congestion impossible in the future.

Accessibility to centers of culture and amusement. Congestion, long hours of labor and the necessities presented by a highly developed civilization have created demand for culture and amusement which must be met and which, because of their psychic rather than physical character, are most difficult to handle. It is only under the stress of the most pressing need that efficient workers are willing to leave the privileges afforded by the city for the monotony of the country district. The "great white way," the theaters, free lectures, libraries are assets which the wage earner considers as part of his rights as resident of a large city. If he is to move from the city these privileges must be brought within easy reach of his new residence, or something that is as good or better in his estimation must be substituted. The cry "back to the land" will not be heard by the wage earner of the city unless he can carry with him all the advantages that urban life affords. A movement countryward must and will be accompanied by a gradual urbanizing of the rural communitites and a closer and easier contact with the things of the city.

The reduction and final removal of congestion from our large cities will be accomplished more easily and with less loss of time if cultural and amusement centers are provided in the newer communities at points that will make them accessible to the larger proportion of the population, by locating them according to a plan based upon the principle of economy of time and maximum of service. Where communities have already become integrated to an extent that makes extensive planning inpracticable, cheap and comfortable rapid transit facilities only will lure the mass of the people from the slum and tenement district into more sparsely settled districts.

Accessibility to food supply. So far we have dealt with factors which are mainly sanitary and psychic, we shall now deal with the economic factors in housing reform.

The cost of the food supply depends to a very considerable extent upon the quantities required in certain sections and the nearness to the center of distribution. On the east side of New York the cost of food is considerably lower than it is in other cities where there is less congestion and where the centers of distribution are less accessible. Even within the limits of New York a difference in the cost of food will be found and this variation in cost stands in indirect ratio with increase in congestion and distance from distribution center. The economic advantages presented by a low price of food can be readily seen, especially where families are large and wages are low.

It is true that so far we have not secured sufficient data upon which to base reliable conclusions concerning the differences in cost of food as determined by congestion and the distance from distributing centers. Every observation points in this direction, but further inquiry should be made so that the determining factors in the cost of food may be discovered and their relation to housing and congestion adjusted.

Regulation of the transportation facilities carried on by public service corporations, the promotion and development of the recently established parcel post system, the establishment of coöperative stores or coöperative purchasing, the encouragement of small farming for household needs, such as the immigrants some times undertake, and other similar well known and tried methods should be adapted and aided.

Reasonable rents. The efforts that have characterized the housing movement in the United States for the last fifteen years were as has already been stated, wholly or almost wholly sanitary. They have added to the cost of construction and in consequence have caused a rise in the rental rates. This means that families are now paying higher rentals regardless of income, and the rise in rentals has caused a lowering of housing standards.

A study of 500 families recently moved from one home to another has clearly shown that in 63 per cent of the cases poorer accomodations were secured because of a recent change in the family income which has caused a necessary change in the amount of rent that could be spared. Social workers and real estate dealers are familiar with the frequent changes of residence among the poorer families and the changes in income which cause this frequency of change of residence.

The rise in rental due to increased regulation and a rise in standards of construction on the one hand and the flexibility of rents due to changes in income, raise a serious and fundamental question as to efficacy of regulation and restriction without some fundamental changes in the economic factors that determine cost and rents.

After a series of studies in over a score of New England communities and a careful examination of the literature on the subject, I venture to summarize the main principles which seem to me to determine cost and rent. These principles are as follows:

1. An increase in the population without a corresponding increase in the housing accomodations of a community determines an increase in rental rates.
2. Rents increase with the increase in the height of buildings.
3. Land values increase with the intensity of land use and intensity of land use increases with the increase in the height of buildings.
4. Rentals per cubic foot of air space increase with the decrease in the size of apartment and the size of apartment decreases with the increase in height of buildings.
5. The taxation of improvements on land and the failure to tax potential land values curtail building enterprise, thereby reducing the supply of homes which results in a rise in rental rates.
6. The strict regulation of new construction without a corresponding increase in the control of old buildings tends to promote the maintenance of old rather than the building of new homes and thereby affects the rentals without a corresponding increase in the quality of accomodations.
7. Accessibility by means of transit facilities or actual proximity to place of employment, amusement and cultural centers etc. when furnished only partially throughout the community tends to increase rentals in direct proportion with accessibility.

These principles are not new. They are the result of common observation and have been repeatedly proven both by economists and students of the housing problem. They have been brought together here so that they may be considered under the general head of housing rather than as mere theories which have a scientific value, but no practical application to the problem before us. Let us consider briefly each of the principles stated above.

1. *Supply and demand.* We have spoken of the spasmodic and vast changes in the population of our cities both in number and in character. It is obvious that an industrial boom which calls hundreds and thousands of workers to a community without at the same time making provisions for their accommodation will create a demand for homes that can be met only by increased congestion and a corresponding rise in rentals.[3]

So far cities and business concerns have been free to advertize the advantages of specific communities with a view to private gain. That booms and undue efforts to attract population should be controlled is self evident. The task of the housing reformer should be to couple movements for local increase in industrial development and growth in population by fore sight as to the necessary housing facilities required to meet the changes in population.

2. Rents and Height of buildings. Professor Eberstadt of Berlin, one of the foremost authorities on housing says: "The higher the building the higher the rent." This same view is taken by another German writer who maintains that with the intensity of land use, of which height is the most important, rentals increase.[4] My limited experience in New England has led me to the same conclusion. A study of rentals in five Rhode Island cities has shown a constant increase in the rental rates in the sections in which the tallest tenements have developed and where a consequent intensive use of land has taken place.

The importance of this principle is clearly evident. It adds strength to the increasing demand for single dwellings by supplying a purely economic basis to a demand for better sanitary conditions and an increased amount of privacy and comfort. A further working out of this principle upon a broad scientific basis is necessary in determining a constructive policy of housing legislation and the housing reformer would be fully repaid by the results of such undertaking.

3. Land values and land use. We have pointed out that intensity of land use increases rentals. The speculation in land values due to an ill fitting system of taxation and the necessity for congestion caused by poor transportation facilities and inadequate community planning are constantly increasing the value of land in the densely settled districts and are thereby affecting the housing cost and rental rates. Professor Eberstadt and his followers consider the rent problem as inseparable from the cost of land and the intensity of land use permitted by law.

In the direction of intensity of land use we have sinned in America to an extent that will take scores of years if not centuries to remedy. We have had our vision obstructed by the New York tenement and have permitted similar land use in some of our smallest communities. This intensive and uncontrolled or partially controlled land use has resulted not only in the most abnormal increase in land values, but has made possible the destruction of some of our most beautiful residential districts where a desire for gain has prompted the construction of high buildings occupying abnormal proportions of the lot area and wholly out of harmony with the rest of the district.

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[3] See reports on housing conditions in Fall River, and Springfield, Mass. by the writer.

[4] Prof. Dr. L. Pohle: *Die Wohnungsfrage,* vol. ii, p. 105.

Had we realized with regard to community building what we have long learned relative to fire protection we would have created building zones such as are to be found in most German cities restricting the tall multiple dwelling to sections in which land values would make the construction of single dwellings too costly while at the same time we would have protected the strictly residential section against the abuse which results from intensive land use and unreasonable rental rates.

The "fire zone" is an accomplished and generally accepted fact, why not have a building zone for the protection of health and comfort as well as the esthetic values of the community?

4. Rents and size of accommodation. Measurements of apartments taken in nine New England cities—Providence, Springfield, Fall River, Newburyport, New Haven, New Britain, Waterbury, Stamford, Portsmouth have invariably shown that with the increase in the size of the building and the number of families accommodated there is a corresponding decrease in the size of the rooms. The rentals per apartment in the larger buildings are on the average larger than in the smaller buildings accommodating fewer families. There is a fundamental principle involved in this reasoning based on known facts which should not be overlooked. It has an economic value that would appeal to the individual interested in the welfare of the community, and has an application to the present problem of securing comfortable accommodations without placing the burden upon either the builder or the tenant. The full burden would fall upon the land speculator whose share in the upbuilding of communities may profitably be dispensed with.

5. Taxation of land and improvements. For the last decade the problem of city and state revenue has been increasingly the subject of study and criticism throughout the United States. We can not at this time consider the merits and demerits of the various systems at present in vogue. All that we need to do is to point our in a general way some of the fallacies of the prevailing methods of taxing housing accommodations as related to taxes upon land. While the principle of taxation for revenue alone is adequate in the case of some commodities, the social requirements of taxation are equity and promotive qualities which will encourage progress and restrict monopoly. In the case under consideration, namely the taxation of housing accommodations we find that it is neither equitable, promotive of progress or restrictive of monopoly. The man who improves his land by placing upon it buildings that are sanitary, comfortable and beautiful, even if that beauty is due to mere skill in the selection of models and materials, is taxed for the fullest value permitted by law and established by custom. The owner who fails to keep his property in repair, who neglects to make the best of the potential value of his holding, pays a low tax on the basis of a low assessment. The real estate dealer who holds out of use the land which is wanted for building purposes and who compels builders to concentrate structures upon a limited area, pays only a very small share of the taxes. The individual builder of homes is compelled to meet the terms of the land speculator who has full control over the most important commodity necessary for home building. Frequently the land speculator who secures tracts of land on the outskirts of the city sells the land in smaller parcels to smaller land speculators who in turn sell it to still smaller speculators. The man or woman who in the end places the improvement upon the land pays taxes not only upon the improvement placed upon the land, but upon the land which he has improved plus all the profits of three or four and sometimes as many as ten land speculators.[5] The burden of final cost therefore is placed upon the builder and the return upon this cost must be secured in rents which the tenant pays.

We have known of exemptions from taxation in cases where business blocks are to be erected and in some instances manufacturing establishments have been so encouraged. The building of sanitary homes has always been carried on under the burden of inequitous taxation and land speculation.

The Germans were quick to realize the importance of controlling land that is available for building purposes. They have secured control over large areas which are being sold at reasonable prices to prospective builders, thereby eliminating to a considerable degree the land speculator and securing for the city a revenue in the form of profit on the sale of land which is not burdensome to the purchaser and at the same time assists in meeting the cities' financial obligations.

If the cities of this country were to secure control over the large tracts of land particularly in the outskirts they would eliminate the land speculator and would at the same time be in a position to remove a large share of the burden of taxation from the shoulders of the ultimate builder and tax payer. In controlling such tracts of land a competition between the city and private land owners would be secured that would reduce prices of land and profits on speculation.

We do not propose to solve the problem of taxation in this brief discussion; what we desire to do is simply to suggest a field of inquiry which would unquestionably lead towards more equitable taxation methods and increase the possibilities of proper building without unnecessary and unjust restrictions both public and private.

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[5] An examination of the tax books of two Rhode Island cities has shown instances of increases in purchasing value of land from 100 to 650 per cent in less than fifteen years.

6. *New and old building laws.* In the earlier part of this article we have discussed the problem of securing adequate regulations to be applied to old buildings. The competitive element that the old and unrestricted building presents against the new building hardly needs emphasis. Where the old buildings are permitted to exist without regulation and under a system of taxation that shifts the burden from the old to the new and improved property it is unavoidable that the number of new structures should be limited and the rentals in the old buildings for which the demand is constantly growing should increase. Unless land cost is reduced by some legislative and administrative means and strict regulations are imposed upon old buildings rentals can not be reduce or controlled as long as a considerable supply of such buildings exists.

7. *Accessibility.* The transit facilities that prevail in many of our cities and towns are so illy adjusted to the needs of the community, and the granting of franchises has been so long the source of private gain that we seldom find proper transportation facilities particularly in the sections of our communities accupied by wage earners. Adequate transit provisions have come to be considered an exceptional privilege rather than a public right and the land owner and house owners are not slow in realizing the market value of such facilities. Only when our transportation system reaches a point where it is considered the right of all rather than the exceptional privilege of a few will rents cease to be affected materially by accessibility to place of employment, amusements etc.

In the foregoing discussion we have endeavored to bring out in a general way the fundamental principles of constructive housing reform. We have gone beyond the generally accepted conception in this field of social service and have pointed out some economic and social aspects of the problem that should and could be met before a scientific and far reaching solution of this most momentous problem could be secured. We are aware of the difficulty that such a broad program would encounter, but we also realize that there is no short cut to permanent improvement, that we have reached a limit in the securing of mere palliatives and that public opinion demands more tangible results than have so far been attained.[6]

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[6] This paper is based upon an address delivered before The Pennsylvania Housing Conference on December 6, 1913.

NEW YORK CITY FINANCES

By William A. Prendergast[1]

New York City

SINCE consolidation (January 1, 1898,) the city of New York has been doing things upon a tremendous scale. While it is true that her expenditures in that period have been characterized by some extravagance and a certain degree of corruption, it is also very true that these main outlays have been made in deference to public demand.

In the early part of the history of the greater city this demand came most strongly from those communities which were merged into the city of New York and which prior to that time had not been financially able to give to their people all that modern municipal convenience required; but during later years the cry for great public improvements of all kinds has been general and no one portion of the city can be charged with greater rapacity in this respect than any other.

The extent to which this policy of continuous improvement has been carried is shown by the fact that from January 1, 1898, to June 31, 1911, long term bonds of the city of New York have been issued for the following purposes:

Water supply	$129,923,568
Streets and roads	99,111,159
Schools	93,517,622
Docks and ferries	82,676,225
Bridges	78,734,452
Rapid transit railroads	73,162,337
Public buildings	49,008,909
City parks and places	37,578,461
Libraries	11,495,400
Fire department	6,049,389
Police department	3,602,984
Department of health	3,216,809
Department of street cleaning	3,170,541

These figures refer only to permanent improvements and have nothing whatever to do with the cost of general city maintenance.

The city of New York has a large debt and the size of this indebtedness is sometimes commented upon adversely. The gross funded debt on June 30, 1912, was $1,082,662,851.75; of this amount the city holds in its own sinking fund, bonds to the aggregate value of $279,783,560.61. The net funded debt on June 30, 1912 (bonds of the city of New York held by the public), was $802,879,291.14.

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[1] Comptroller of the city of New York.

The expenditures of the city of New York are divided into two classes: Those made under the authority of the tax budget, and corporate stock (or long term bond) authorizations.

The tax budget is prepared and approved by the board of estimate and apportionment and must receive the approval of the aldermen. The aldermen have power to reduce the amount of the items contained in the budget, but cannot increase any. Neither can they alter the character of any appropriation from the form in which it is inserted in the budget by the board of estimate and apportionment. This budget provides for the general maintenance expenses of the city government and also the county departments and courts within its jurisdiction. An illustration of the scope and function of a New York City tax budget is best shown in the following statement of the budget for this year:

GROUPING OF APPROPRIATIONS ACCORDING TO GENERAL FUNCTION OR PURPOSE	GROUP TOTALS	PER CAPITA COST
General administration	$3,042,915.00	$0.59
Legislative (aldermen and city clerk)	285,810.00	.06
Judicial	8,437,835.26	1.63
Educational	36,116,559.31	6.98
Health and sanitation	17,076,279.18	3.30
Protection of life and property	30,179,314.61	5.83
Correctional purposes	1,362,404.00	.26
Charitable purposes	8,165,773.38	1.58
Streets, highways and bridges (care and maintenance of)	5,083,476.84	.98
Recreation, science and art, viz:		
(a) Parks, parkways and drives	2,454,853.00	.49
(b) Zoological and botanical gardens, museums, etc	1,003,476.57	.19
Public buildings and offices(care and maintenance of)	1,370,906.63	.27
Board of elections and county canvassers	1,208,675.00	.23
Publication, advertising and printing	1,353,890.00	.26
Taxes, rents, pension and relief fund, etc	6,445,569.20	1.25
Public enterprises (docks and municipal ferries)	2,960,623.62	.57
Totals	$126,548,361.60	$24.46
Interest on the city debt and provision for the retirement of its bonds	51,254,528.17	9.91
Total cost for maintenance of government, interestand amortization for the year 1912	$177,802,889.77	$34.37

The total number of employees of the city is approximately 107,000. Of these about 85,000 are regular employees, 22,000 temporary. The temporary employees consist chiefly of election officials, landlords of polling places, and those engaged in the removal of snow to the number of 15,000.

Checks are used to pay about 65,000 of the regular employees, the chief beneficiaries being the teachers, 17,200; policemen, 10,118, and firemen, 4346. The amounts paid by check aggregate about $75,000,000; those paid in cash, about $14,000,000. When one appreciates that the item of salaries and wages alone represents an average outlay of seven and a half millions of dollars per month, it is not hard to understand that for many years New York has been one of the greatest borrowers in the world.

Borrowings necessary for these purposes had from consolidation to the middle of the year 1910 been made in the form of revenue bonds—short term evidences of the city's indebtedness. These bonds were issued for periods of from one to twelve months, or for such longer time as the size of the amount to be borrowed and a study of the money market would justify. In the last years of the previous administration the amount of these borrowings had become so large that it was deemed necessary to broaden the market for them by seeking foreign buyers. It was found, however, that owing to the fact that these short term evidences of indebtedness were issued under the name of bonds, that name being applied to them in the charter, they were not acceptable for quick handling, especially in England, because as bonds they were subject to the bond tax of one-half of 1 per cent, whereas, if they could be issued in the nature of bills, they would only be subject to a very small tax of one-twentieth of 1 per cent.

In order to assure the city a broader market I asked the legislature of 1910, the first year of my administration, to give us authority to issue these evidences of indebtedness in the form of bills and payable in the currency of foreign countries. This was promptly done and the city has now an extensive market for her short term obligations, enjoying the advantage not only of a wider field for the placing of these bills, but an opportunity to take advantage of the best rates wherever they may be found.

The question would naturally arise why should New York City put itself in the position of being so heavy a borrower instead of collecting the funds for her current maintenance either in advance of its incurrence, or at least at such periods as would enable her to be a fairly self-supporting concern; "self-supporting" in this sense being used as opposed to the principle of constant borrowing.

The first step that was undertaken in this direction involving the collection of a sum approximately $130,000,000, was a change in the system of preparing the city's tax bills, it being our idea that if the bills were ready promptly it would lead to payments being made more promptly. To the mind of the average business man the very idea of the city not being ready with its bills promptly would no doubt occasion amazement.

The mere proposition upon my part to prepare all bills in advance naturally aroused great opposition in the office of the receiver of taxes, and not less than fifty objections were urged by so-called experts and mossback office holders to any such system. My idea was that not only should the tax bills be prepared in advance, so that they would be ready when the taxpayer called for them, but that they should be prepared in duplicate and triplicate form, so that when an application was made for a tax bill, the triplicate or advice showing all the necessary information could be given to the taxpayer. When the payment was made the original would be receipted and handed to the taxpayer and the duplicate used by the auditor of receipts as a check upon the collecting officers. The system had another purpose in that it enabled the department of finance for the first time to exercise a thorough control over the collection of the city's taxes.

The results of the introduction of this system were excellent not only in inducing quicker payments, but in the very much greater convenience to the taxpayers of the city in discharging their tax payments.

Side by side with this change, however, we had in contemplation the more important principle of collecting the city's revenue in time to enable it to pay its bills. After much study and a thorough investigation of the tax systems in force in all the leading cities of this country, I announced at a meeting of the City Club on the night of February 6, 1911, that as the city's financial officer I was in favor of a system of semi-annual tax collections, and would ask the legislature to give me authority to make them in that way. The necessary legislation was secured and this year the plan went into effect. The annual tax is payable in two equal parts, on the first of May and the first of November. Those who desire to pay their entire taxes at one time are at perfect liberty to do so and as an inducement to make full payment, a discount at the rate of 4 per cent per annum is allowed upon the money due on the second half, if paid in advance of November 1, and calculated from the date of payment to November 1.

Total collections, May 1 to and including September 3, 1912...	$80,456,202.74
Collections representing first half of yearly period..........	63,778,797.48
Collections representing second half of yearly period.......	16,677,405.26

What it means to the city of New York to be in receipt of this great sum of money and not to be compelled to be a borrower marks not only a great advance in the method of conducting city business, but it also means that the city will be the richer this very year by approximately one million and a half dollars, saved in interest charges. The entire extra expense to which the city has been subjected through the introduction of this system has this year been $50,000, and probably this amount can be reduced in subsequent years, so the gain is not only great in respect to administrative efficiency, but also in actual financial results.

If the city takes the attitude that it is entitled to quick payment of that which is due, it is just as essential that the city should promptly pay its own bills. A government should be just as careful of its credit as a private individual, and one of the surest means of enjoying good credit is to be prompt in payments. It must be said with regret that heretofore those charged with the care of the city's credit have not seemed to appreciate this fundamental principle, although they probably recognized its force in their private business and transactions. This laxity also brought about a system of petty imposition practised by clerks and others who had the payment of accounts in their charge. There being practically no system under which payments of bills should be made, it was every man's race. Those who were willing to "make arrangements" could get their money in quicker time than those who were out of favor or were not willing to pay for what was their right. One of the first measures of reform which I undertook in the department of finance was to devise a system which would govern the payment of bills.

Every voucher entering the department is put upon a schedule and that schedule must be recognized throughout the entire audit. To pay a voucher out of its order is now an infraction of the rules, unless in very rare cases there be some special reason for taking a bill out of its order. This cannot be done except with the sanction of the comptroller or one of his deputies. This power is so seldom used by them as to insure the absolute integrity of the original system. Instead of its requiring from twenty to thirty days for the payment of bills they are now made on an average of less than five days. This, of course, refers to accounts over which there is no dispute and represents 95 per cent of the accounts passing through the department of finance.

I am not claiming that the city's bills are paid on an average of five days from the time they are incurred. This time refers only to the period required for their transmission and payment through the department of finance. There is not the slightest reason, however, why bills should not be passed in even less time than this through the different departments and bureaus incurring the obligations, and if this were done it would mean that the city of New York could take advantage of the best cash discounts and be in a position thereby to demand the very best prices obtainable. It has not enjoyed any such advantage in the past because of this delay in paying its obligations.

Even within the past year there have been cases in which certain of the city departments have not transmitted accounts to the department of finance inside of three, four, five, six, seven and eight months. This condition, however, is rapidly being improved and ought to be almost entirely obliterated through the operation of the new accounting system and the better treatment of all municipal work, the merit of which is now being generally recognized in city departments.

I have already called attention to the large amounts borrowed by the city through the sale of its corporate stock, or long term bonds, this covering the other class of city expenditures as differentiated from the outlays made on account of the tax budget.

In 1911, some of the principal expenditures of this character were as follows:

Educational purposes	$5,052,626.80
Health and sanitation	1,196,771.25
Water supply	30,774,994.86
Streets and highways	12,287,760.18
Bridges	11,551,974.25
Public buildings and offices	3,220,617.93
Docks and ferries	2,545,178.82
Rapid transit railroads	10,010,526.38

It has been the city's practice to go into the market for its long term bonds at frequent intervals, sometimes three different times a year. This meant that at such periods as the city was greatly in need of money it would find that it was embarrassed because of an unfavorable money market, and the history of recent administrations will show that this embarrassment was on some occasions very costly to the city. At the time I became comptroller there was relatively little corporate stock money on hand, although there had been a sale of $12,500,000 during the preceding month; but this amount was wholly inadequate to meet what were even then pressing demands, especially for land liability.

I believed that the city would serve its best interests by letting it be known in the financial world that it would not go into the market for long term borrowings more than once a year. With that object in view I asked the commissioners of the sinking fund to confirm my plan of issuing $50,000,000 worth of corporate stock during the early part of the year 1910. The sale took place on March 21, 1910, and was a great success. The interest rate on these bonds was fixed at 4¼ per cent. The second sale was for $60,000,000 at 4¼ per cent and took place on January 24, 1911, and the third sale of my administration was for $65,000,000 at 4¼ per cent and was held on May 7, 1912.

There is no doubt whatever that this policy of yearly sales has the approval of the financial world and is also a great help to the city because it enables the department of finance to select what is generally known to be the most acceptable period of the year for a bond sale. These large sales were open to the criticism that they left a good deal of money on hand in the city treasury and that as the city has to pay 4¼ per cent on its money, and only receives on an average of 2 per cent from its deposits, it suffered an unnecessary loss. This criticism was justified in a measure although it must be remembered that the ability of the city to sell its bonds readily and at good prices is a compensating advantage. But under a new system which we have established this criticism is read out of court. It was with the object of avoiding the carrying of large sums of long term money in the banks, and also of being in a position promptly to pay the obligations incurred by the city under its corporate stock authorizations that we found it necessary to devise a new method in municipal finance.

It might be asked why should the city ever be behind in paying its bills. It must assuredly have large sums of money on hand; for instance, in former times, when a contractor would call for his money and be told that there was none on hand, he would naturally wonder why the city could not pay his bill when he would read from a published report that it had a number of millions of dollars in banks. The point is that possibly none of this money in the banks belonged to the fund from which his account could be paid, although the sanctity of these accounts had been frequently violated and bills which should be paid from corporate stock authorizations had been paid from the tax budget collections, and vice versa. This brought about a chaotic condition in the city treasury and became an embarrassment because it has happened that when it was necessary to replenish a certain fund it was found to be difficult to get the money with which to do it. This was called the general pot theory of mixing all moneys and making payments indiscriminately; but this general pot theory was one of the things that I evicted from the department of finance immediately upon becoming comptroller.

Another difficulty was this: Under the law, although corporate stock had been authorized for a certain improvement and a contract awarded for the work, no payment could legally be made on account of that contract unless bonds specifically covering that particular authorization had been sold. This created much confusion and delay in paying the city's bills but the delay was especially oppressive against the city's creditors for land liability. Where land had been taken for public improvements the condemnation proceedings would drag along for a number of years, and although the claimant would be entitled to interest from the time when title vested in the city, still the city's failure to make payment promptly for these awards created great hardship on a large number of people who were really in need of the money, and unless bonds had been sold covering specific authorizations for these land liabilities, payment could not be made. In 1910 we paid $15,000,000 for land acquired, and in 1911, $28,000,000, as against an average of $10,000,000 for preceding years.

All these different considerations led us to the conclusion that there should be some method provided for paying promptly the city's obligations for permanent improvements, and as a means of meeting this very trying situation we decided, in the year 1911, to ask the legislature to permit us to issue corporate stock notes, these notes to be issued for a term not longer than one year, and to be paid out of the next succeeding bond sale.

The necessary legislation was secured and the consequence is that through our ability to borrow money for corporate stock purposes on these short term notes, making a considerable saving in interest charges, we are now in a position to make our borrowings whenever necessary and there need not be a single day's delay in the payment of a corporate stock liability. This new device, also very simple, has in conjunction with the semi-annual tax plan practically revolutionized New York's financing and tends to place it upon a basis of absolute business integrity and efficiency.

The corporate stock note also disposes effectually of the necessity of ever reverting to frequent bond issues and confirms the policy of yearly bond sales which I had the honor of introducing.

While discussing some of the lights I deem it well to also call attention to at least one of the shadows because it refers to a subject to which the thought of all those interested in better municipal administration should be directed. On June 30, 1912, the city of New York had an estimated land liability of $22,943,914.28. Of this amount $5,236,741.57, or 22.8 per cent represented interest charges. This means that nearly one-quarter of this great sum will have to be paid by the taxpayers of the city of New York because of an antiquated, cumbersome and wasteful method of condemnation proceedings.

The delays take place almost entirely in the work of the condemnation commissions, which is prolonged unduly, and largely, I am assured, because the longer the work can be delayed, the more meetings can be held and the greater will be the remuneration of the commissioners. For the purpose of maintaining and enriching these favorites of the courts, selected generally because of political preference and favoritism, the city of New York must pay this great tribute in interest charges.

In addition to handling current responsibilities, which it is apparent from the figures already given are of great magnitude, this administration has been called upon to adjust many difficult problems left by its predecessors. One of the most trying of its financial difficulties has been the handling of a large indebtedness due to uncollectible taxes. Under the system already explained, the city has been compelled to borrow for its budget requirements, but in cases where the taxes could not be collected, the revenue bonds or bills issued against these deficits constituted a debt that must be taken care of in some other way.

From January 1, 1898, to 1905, there had accumulated $36,000,000 of uncollectible taxes. This was one of the great problems which the second administration of Mr. McClellan was called upon to face immediately upon going into office. It is the law that the sum of all taxes deemed uncollectible shall be included in the next succeeding annual tax budget and defrayed therefrom. This practice has not been lived up to, largely because of the fear of each administration to face the situation in a manly way and let the people know in the budget exactly what their real condition was and the responsibilities they had to meet. Shortly after the beginning of the second McClellan administration legislation was secured authorizing the liquidation of this great sum of $36,000,000 of uncollectible taxes through the issue of long term bonds. The poor business policy of such a proceeding is manifest, and at the same time this deficit had become so great that its inclusion in a single tax budget, or even spreading it over two or three years, would be regarded by the taxpayers as an unnecessary burden. It is simply a question whether a man wants to discharge his indebtedness and be done with it. The same thing occurs to the city, but we find that there are many taxpayers who believe that the longer they can put off the payment of a claim, and thus keep down even to a small degree the amount of taxes they have to pay annually, the better off they are. They do not stop to figure that the city is not better off but that its condition is annually becoming worse.

Although the city of New York had the authority to issue long term bonds to pay this deficit, during the entire preceding administration of four years only $3,000,000 was used in this way, leaving a balance for this administration of $33,000,000. In order to rid the city of this burden of $33,000,000 I concluded that it would be a safe policy to issue corporate stock to the amount of $5,000,000 per annum. This would, during the present administration, liquidate $20,000,000 of this amount, and I thought it equitable to spread the balance through the next administration on the theory that as this great deficit represented the accumulations of eight years, it was fair to spread the liquidation of it over about the same period.

This administration has now been in office three years and we have paid off $15,000,000. The remaining $5,000,000 will be paid off during the year 1913 and this means that what has been a floating indebtedness is being funded into a long term indebtedness. This situation, however, presents a very stirring object lesson to a municipal government, whether it be large or small. This lesson is that it should endeavor to pay its way as it goes along, and if it finds itself running behind the best thing to do would be to frankly tell its citizens that such is the case and handle the situation in a manly way.

THE VALUATION OF REAL ESTATE FOR TAXATION

BY W. A. SOMERS[1]

BEFORE undertaking to describe how land values are ascertained by the Somers System it will be well to consider what "value" is. One of the standard dictionaries says: "Value, the property or aggregate properties of a thing by which it is rendered useful or desirable, or the degree of such property or sum of properties; concrete purchasing power; the specific quantity of another object for which a given object can be exchanged; a price which can be actually obtained; market price.

As a matter of fact, value, the word, is used to indicate an attempt on the part of man to measure and compare his desires.

A man may desire a head covering, and going into a hat shop finds hats and caps varying in price from 50 cents to $10. His desire may be satisfied with a $3.50 derby, and he is willing to exchange for it $3.50 of money received by him as wages. In this transaction he has valued the hat to him at as much or a little more than $3.50. At the same time he may consider that this hat is worth more than the $10 hat, and his judgment or measure of value is final and absolute.

The next man may satisfy his desires by the purchase of a 50 cent cap, while the next man may desire a $10 silk hat and think it worth the price; and these purchases show the individual idea of the comparative value of the different articles. No matter what the article may be, its value to an individual can only be determined by his desire for it, and the only terms in which he can measure this desire is to compare one article with another, and he cannot make this comparison for anyone but himself. This being true it is evident that in the attempt to arrive at a community opinion of value for each one of a number of things, there must be some basis or foundation other than the indivudual opinions of the people. That is, there must be found or created some expressed community opinion from which specific values can be deduced, and by which such values can be compared and checked before a satisfactory list can be made.

To illustrate: If it were possible to obtain from each individual of the community his opinion of the comparative value of a certain list of articles, the comparison in all cases to be made with money, and to be based upon his idea of the value of the article without regard to its cost, there is no doubt that in many of the lists some one or more of the articles not being desired by the individual making the list would be marked valueless; and the chances are that each one of the articles listed would be found on some one or more of the lists so marked. Therefore, average values based on individual opinion would not be satisfactory because the opinions would not be based upon the same standards.

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[1] Mr. Somers has had long experience in the assessment of property for the purposes of taxation. In 1891 he was made deputy assessor of St. Paul and Ramsey County, Minnesota, at which time he evolved his method of real estate valuation, which in 1896 was adopted for the assessment of the city of St. Paul. Afterwards Mr. Somers was engaged for some years in the cities of Cleveland, Minneapolis, Chicago and New York in examination and assessment revisions. Upon the completion of his service in Cleveland, Mr. Somers arranged with the Manufacturers' Appraisal Company of that city to operate his system.—EDITOR.

One man whose income is obtained by hard labor at $2 per day would have a very different idea of the value of things compared with money than the man whose income from inherited wealth, without exertion on his part, amounts to $100 per day. Therefore it is safe to say that it is impossible to deduce a community opinion of the value of things directly from the only true measure of value—individual opinion.

Nevertheless, we do find in market prices a community opinion which limits the value of all things that have or are subject to market prices. That is, an article can never be worth more than the cost of producing it (the price of the article in the open market), and it never can be worth less at any given time than the amount that can be obtained for it.

With the great development of trade and commerce during the last two hundred years, and the almost universal use of gold as a measure of value, there has been created in the minds of the people generally the idea that everything and anything has a certain discoverable value which can be expressed in gold dollars, and this thought has been common with reference to the valuation of land. To find a specific value for each lot is commonly considered a simple problem, requiring only honest care to make a correct assessment of land values.

Now when we realize that the value of anything, even the most common article, is only an individual opinion, and that the only guide to a community opinion as to the value of these common things is market prices, and that city land is not subject to market prices, we have discovered the cause of the difficulty in obtaining satisfactory assessments of city land, and it seems to me that this makes it plain why the assessments of city land for taxation is almost universally condemned as unequal and unjust. The work may be the honest, conscientious opinion of the assessor, but it is open to criticism by every other citizen, each of whom has the same right in his opinion as the assessor; and as it is human nature to express our fault-finding more emphatically than our praise, it is not astonishing that the work of the assessor is condemned.

Exception may be taken to the statement that city land is not subject to market prices, and a few words are necessary in explanation of this statement. Market prices can only exist for exact duplicates. There can be no market price for any one thing which cannot be duplicated. The market price of wheat is fixed by the bushel; of coal by the ton; and the prices are based on uniformity of quality so that each ton or bushel is exactly like every other ton and bushel.

A city lot cannot be duplicated. It is a certain definite portion of the earth's surface; and while there may be other lots similar in size and shape, they occupy different parts of the earth's surface, and as the predominant value of city land is its usefulness as a site or location, the fact that several lots may be of the same size and shape is no indication that they are of the same value. Therefore there can never be a market price for city lots except to a very limited degree, such as the case of subdividing an undeveloped farm into city lots of uniform size. They may be offered in the first sale at a uniform price, but this uniformity immediately disappears with the first transfer of the property.

As an illustration of the radical difference in value of different locations I find from the tentative land value maps of the city of New York for 1913 that at the point of highest value on lower Broadway a 25-foot lot would be worth half a million dollars; that lots of the same size less than two blocks distant from this point are rated at $50,000; and taking the high point on Fifth Avenue near Thirty-fourth Street, where an inside 25-foot lot would be valued at $375,000, within a radius of two blocks there are many lots of the same size which are valued at less that $100,000, and very many places in all parts of the city where lots of the same size and in the same block will differ in value as three to one.

The fact that market prices are an expression of community opinion of the value of all things used by man that can be moved from place to place —in fact all things except the surface of the earth, land—has caused an impression that the value of city land can be determined from prices as shown by sales. The fallacy of this supposition is demonstrated when we realize that the prices for sales of land are in all cases merely a compromise between the individual opinons of the purchaser and seller, and that each piece of land represents a particular and specific location on the earth's surface, which cannot be duplicated, and which cannot be moved; and therefore its value does not necessarily indicate the value of any other piece in the world.

If every lot in the city were sold each year, there is no doubt that from these sales some averages could be deduced that would fairly represent a community opinion of value, but the fact is that only a very small proportion of city land is sold during a year, and it is very common to find lots or tracts of land that have not been sold for two or three generations.

Although the term "value of land" is in common use, as a matter of fact land has no value of itself. It can only be valuable to man in using it; therefore any statement of the value of a given parcel of land is based entirely upon an estimate of its future usefulness; and this usefulness cannot be foretold, because it is dependent entirely upon the conditions of the use. Under certain conditions the use of land may be made to produce valuable crops, or if used as a site for residence purposes it may be very useful and very valuable as a shelter or home, and if used as a site for business projects, it may be made to produce very large return as rent.

It is evident that the only list of values that can be absolutely satisfactory to a community would be a list representing the unanimous opinion of the community, which of course is an impossibility. The assessor must therefore undertake to obtain a community expression of some common knowledge so related to the land values that this community expression can be used as the basis for calculating the value of each lot.

This common knowledge is found in that knowledge common to all the people of the community of the relative importance of the streets. The fact that the value of city land is directly comparable with the comparative usefulness of the streets which make it accessible to the trade and life of the city makes this knowledge a reliable and accurate basis for calculating the value of the lots. While this community opinion is not expressed in definite form of price or value, it has been demonstrated that a very clear expression of it can be obtained by comparing the streets one with another on the basis of their frontage values. By assuming as a unit the frontage value per foot of an inside lot 100 feet deep, then starting with the best street and limiting the inquiry to a few blocks, it will prove surprisingly easy to obtain an agreement or consensus of opinion as to the comparative frontage value of these blocks and streets. Then extending the work from this center in all directions, working out along the best street and through streets of less value until the whole city has been covered, a schedule or frontage value map may be established that can be used as a basis for the appraisal of each separate parcel of land in the city. This is the foundation of what is known as the "Somers System of Land Valuation."

The practical construction of this unit value map was one of the serious problems, but within the last two years such maps have been made in more than a dozen cities, and it is proven that when undertaken by competent authority (the assessor) with the idea that the maps shall be used as the basis for taxation, the owners and occupants of city property enter into the work with enthusiasm, and are willing to give all of the assistance necessary. The valuation must be started under some proper authority to secure the attention of the property owners, and must be carefully conducted, the object and use being explained, and it has been found that as soon as the people understand the practicability of this method, they will appreciate the importance of it and realize that not only can they help in preparing a map, but that after the work is completed they will be enabled to form a better judgment as to the uniformity of the valuation.

It is very desirable and almost an absolute necessity that the unit value for 100 feet in depth shall be fixed at what is considered the actual value of an inside lot 100 feet in depth. Any attempt to use a percentage of the actual value will result in confusion and make it impractical to compare one portion of the city with another. To make use of the unit value map, it is necessary to fix definite rules that will apply to all the various sizes, shapes and positions of the individual holdings by which this frontage unit can be converted into the value in dollars of any particular lot.

Experience has demonstrated that the value of about 95 per cent of the lots, or individual holdings can be determined directly from the frontage value units in connection with the other information on the map, that is, size, shape, and accessibility as shown by position with reference to streets and alleys, the influences of accessibility to the community's life, leaving not to exceed 5 per cent of the lots that will require special investigation. At first sight this may appear to indicate a greater uniformity than is generally thought to exist. Because it is so frequently stated that to determine the value of a lot one must make a complete and thorough examination of the lot, and estimate the many conditions that affect this value, it is astonishing to learn that all of the conditions affecting the value of 95 per cent of the lots in the city can be expressed in street value units in connection with the size, shape and position as shown on the map.

However, 95 per cent is a low estimate because the frontage units may be valued to show every change along each street, and will naturally show the effect of any change in any or all of the streets, such as grading, sidewalks, sewers, water, etc. If one block is graded and paved, and the next block is not graded, the value of this difference will show in the value of the unit. If a sewer has been constructed along a part of a block only, there will be two units showing differences in value. If the land on one side of the street is depressed below the street level and the other side is at the street level, there will be two units, one for each side, showing the value of this difference.

A very common thought that each lot is different from every other lot grows out of the fact that in the valuation of a city lot each one values it from his own point of view, thinking only of his use of it, and from each different use there will be a different income, therefore a different value; and this accounts for the great discrepancy that frequently occurs in the valuation of a given tract by different individuals. Even "experts" frequently differ very widely in their valuation of the same lot.

To make use of these community opinion unit values rules must be established by which the specific value of any given lot can be computed. The first rule to be considered is called the curve of value, and is a rule for determining the effect of frontage value at different depths.

For one kind of business, such as a cigar store, the front part of a lot will be very valuable, and the rear part of less value, while for a restaurant the lot should have its front on the street, and at the same time enough space in the rear for the proper conduct of the restaurant business, making the rear part as important and as valuable to the business as the front. The fact is that the different uses to which city land is put results in giving a higher average value to the front portion of the lot, because it can be adapted to more profitable use by a larger number of people, and to a greater variety of uses than the rear portion of the lot, but there is no fixed positive relation.

Having established 100 feet in depth as the fixed unit of quantity—the yardstick—the first investigation was made to ascertain the comparative usefulness of a lot that was only 50 feet in depth, having only one-half the area of the unit depth, and next to ascertain the comparative value of a lot 150 feet in depth.

This investigation was begun in St. Paul, Minnesota, where the business portion of the city is laid out in blocks 300 feet square, divided into 12 lots, each 50 by 150 feet, and as the business developed in the cross streets many of these corner lots lying 150 feet along the street have been joined with the adjoining lot, and divided so as to make lots of 100 feet deep fronting on the cross street. In other cases a corner lot had been used as frontage on a cross street, making a lot only 50 feet deep, thus giving many examples of lots 50 and 100 feet in depth.

It is evident that the front half of a lot is worth more than the rear half, and that an addition of 50 feet to the rear of a 100-foot lot does not increase its value in proportion to the added area. After a careful investigation of many hundreds of lots in actual use, and of many hundreds of sale of lots of different dimensions, it was determined to use as a tentative scale, 70 per cent of the value of the 100-foot unit as representing the value of the first 50 feet of depth and giving 30 per cent of the value of the unit to the rear 50 feet, and considering the third 50 feet as having a value equal to 15 per cent of the 100-foot unit. Plotting these effects upon cross-section paper developed a curve of value, that is a curved line drawn from a zero point to represent the street line through a 50-foot point representing a lot 50 feet in depth, and at an elevation to indicate 70 per cent, then through a 100-foot point at an elevation to indicate 100 per cent, then to the 150-foot point at an elevation to indicate 115 per cent.

This tentative curve was then tested by applying it to many lots in several cities, and by submitting it to the best authorities, and it was determined that for retail business property the first 50 feet absorbed a little more than the tentative curve indicated, and this was changed to $72\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. The curve thus formed has been used and tried in many thousands of cases in many cities, and it is evident that it fairly represents a general consensus of opinion as to the proportionate value of different depths in retail business property up to 100 feet, and that for residence or wholesale property it and its extensions fairly represents a proportionate value for 75 to 250 feet in depth.

The next rule to be established was the rule for determining the effect of the value on corner lots. It was discovered that very little if any attempt had been made by real estate men to formulate rules to determine the enhanced value of corner lots. The idea was very commonly expressed that a corner lot was more valuable than an inside lot by a percentage varying from 10 to 100 per cent, but without any fixed reason for different percentages. These differences appeared to be individual, and to have been determined in each individual case by an examination of the lot, and while it was evident that the value of a cross street had to an extent controlled this percentage it had been unconscious, and the conclusion had been reached from the actual use of the corner, and not as deduced from the value of the cross street.

It is evident that with the unit maps as a foundation, values of corner lots can be uniformly determined by some combination of the values of the unit on the streets forming the corner; and it was not difficult to compile a set of rules that would give uniform results for lots 50 by 100 feet fronting 50 feet on the best street for any combination of street values.

The next step was to determine the effect where the lots had their longest frontage of 100 feet on the best street instead of 50 feet, and it was realized that the only possible method of formulating rules to cover all cases would be by assuming some convenient limit for corner tables, and then distributing the value of the cross street over this unit lot by definite rules in small areas, so that it can be easily stated for any given dimension or plot lying in any position. This was accomplished by a careful investigation of the recognized effects on standard corner lots 50 by 100 feet, from which was formulated tables to fit all combinations of street values; then a second lot next to and adjoining the corner was worked out with the same range of corner values. The increase of value to this second lot is very slight, if anything, where the cross street is of but little value, and when the cross street is of nearly the same value as the best street then the effect on this second lot will be considereble.

Having worked out the effect on the two lots 50 by 100 feet each gave us 100 feet square as the corner unit, and this was then divided into 100 squares, each 10 feet, and the effect of the cross street values is worked out on each one of these 100 squares, maintaining in all cases the original proportions as found from actual experience in the use of lots.

The existing dimensions of lots in business centers were found to be so irregular that 10-foot squares were found the best division that could be practically used, and it was found for this use more convenient to use a set of tables rather than scales as originally planned. These tables show the value in dollars of each one of the 100 squares each 10 feet by 10 feet in a unit corner of a 100-foot square, for every combination of street unit values. There are for practical computation use 100 tables in which the best street unit is valued at $1000 the cross street unit varying in value from zero in Table No. 1 to $1000 in Table No. 100 by differences of $10 between each table. This arrangement makes a convenient method for working out the value of any sizes or shapes coming within the 100-foot square on the corner. Practically every corner-value problem can be solved from these $1000 tables by proportion.

The third rule to be considered was the effect of alleys laid out across or through a block. By alleys are meant thoroughfares running into or through a block, the use of which is practically confined to the occupants of the block. When they are strictly alleys, used exclusively for the benefit of the lots in the block, it is safe to assume that the ground thus used is worth as much as if it was used as a lot. Otherwise it would not be used as an alley, and the alley not being of any use or value to the property outside of the block, and being exempt from taxation, the value of the ground so used must be added to the value of the lots which are benefited by its use as an alley. It is therefore assumed that a proper method for caring for alleys, is first:

To ascertain the value of the ground used as an alley, computed by the rules of frontage and depth. Then to distribute the amount of this value to the several lots in the block which are accessible to the alley in proportion to their accessibility.

There are exceptions to every rule, and cases have been found where the alleys in a block covered so much ground that the value of the land amounted to more than the benefits accruing to the lots as in the case of an alley 20 feet wide through a block where the only use if the alley was as a rear entrance to the lots, and where 10 feet in width would have accommodated the property as well as 20 feet. In such a case it is evident that there is a loss in maintaining a 20-foot alley, and it may be that the amount of benefit to the lot is less than the value of the land so used. When there is more than one alley in the block, or where the widths of the alleys in the block are not uniform, the advantages or benefits to the lots must be adjusted in accordance with the facts.

Alleys benefit lots first by making them accessible to the public thoroughfares; second, by giving them the advantages of unobstructed light in proportion to the width of the alley; third, by insuring the free circulation of air. In all three of these cases any increase in the width of the alley will tend to increase the benefit. Therefore if we have in one part of the block a narrow alley, we should not charge the same rate per front foot as should be charged when the alley is wider. The exercising of a little common sense in adjusting the value of the different conditions and features will be necessary, and it will not be difficult to work out a satisfactory result.

From the very nature of the case each block must be worked out separately, if there is only one alley, and that is of uniform width running through the block, passing we will say the back end of each lot, and the lots being all of the same width, the case is very simple, as the benefits to the lots must be equal. A division of the total value of the land used for the alley by the number of lots will give a fair proportion of the amount which must be added to the value of each lot.

It is frequently stated that rules cannot be formulated that will take into consideration all of the conditions that effect the value of city lots. While it may be admitted that this is true, it must be admitted that in so far as similar conditions exist their treatment by the use of rules will tend to simplify the work of the appraiser, result in greater uniformity, and greatly facilitate the work of comparison or review. While it is true that there appear to be many conditions that affect the value of a lot, a little thought will demonstrate the fact that when we eliminate those features that affect the same lot differently, depending upon the use that is made of it, or the ideas of the individual having control of it, we find the real forces that give value to city lots are not so complicated. The complication grows out of the fact that cities are not built according to a fixed plan, but grow from a cross-country road, through the village to the city, by the addition of new people, gradually developing from time to time, and that the value of the land increases with the number of people who desire to use it, and the only measure of the value is this desire, which is based upon an estimate of the profit to accrue from the use of the lot.

This may sound radical, and some will say, "Why, I can sell that lot for a certain price at any time." Therefore, that is its value, but this can only be realized when there are a number of people who think that the future use of the lot can be made to produce an income sufficient to pay interest on the sum offered, or more.

EFFICIENCY IN CITY PURCHASING

BY W. RICHMOND SMITH[1]

THE one paramount economic issue in the United States today is the necessity for a reduction in the high cost of living to the individual. While other considerations enter into the solution of the question, the fundamental problem is the reduction of the costs of production by our great commercial and industrial enterprises. This reduction in the costs of production involves many important considerations, but none more vitally necessary than the elimination of waste in overhead carrying charges and in the purchase of raw materials and supplies.

During the past half century this country has revolutionized the industrial map of the world. With the greatest of nature's raw material storehouses at command, the people of the United States have set the world's pace in commercial and industrial development. Every other industrial nation has contributed in knowledge and skill to this wonderful march of progress, because in thus coining the natural resources of the country the United States could afford to pay the highest market price for all kinds of labor. In no other land could the willing and skilful worker reap so great a reward. But during this time the laws of cause and effect were at work creating new conditions. Abundance bred waste. Our great natural resources have been dissipated with a prodigal hand. Vast wealth and high wages have produced a new and higher standard of living. The luxuries of yesterday have become the necessities of today. Unparalleled expansion of profitable production for enormous home and still greater foreign markets compelled our great manufacturing industries to devote their energies to attaining perfection in methods of disposing of their products. There was neither the time nor the urgent necessity for making the same close study of the methods and costs of production. Excessive overhead carrying charges and loose and inefficient systems of purchasing and handling raw materials and supplies came as a natural consequence of enormous yearly increases in production. The steadily increasing cost of raw materials and supplies—due to the gradual depletion of our natural resources combined with the insistent demand of labor of every class for higher wages to meet the increased cost of living—has compelled our captains of industry, during the past few years, to face the problem of new and better methods of purchasing and handling raw materials and supplies in order to reduce to a minimum the costs of production.

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[1] Mr. Smith is the expert in charge of the work of commission on standardization connected with the New York department of finance, of which William A. Prendergast, comptroller, is the head. This article should be read in connection with Comptroller Prendergast's article on "New York City Finances" (see NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. ii, p. 221) and Prof. Robert Livingston Schuyler's article on "Centralization in City Purchasing" (see vol. ii, p. 251).

The first great national industries to feel the urgent need of efficient systems of purchasing and handling supplies were the railway systems of the country. The need was felt in that quarter first because of the enormous annual outlay necessary to supply and equip thousands of miles of railway spread over vast expanses of territory where the lack of efficient system of purchase and distribution meant the waste of millions of dollars annually. Great railway organizers like James J. Hill and the late E. H. Harriman were among the first to realize the importance of efficient systems of supply purchase and distribution for the gigantic industries under their control. Hundreds of thousands of dollars were annually expended in revolutionizing administrative methods to permit the application of the principle of central control over the purchase and distribution of the forty to sixty millions of dollars-worth of supplies annually purchased by these great railway systems. It is less than a dozen years since the first efficient system of supply purchase, distribution and control was created and put into effect by private corporations in this country, and today there is not a railway system of any importance in the United States or Canada which has not applied the essential principles of efficient purchasing in some form to this branch of its activities. The great manufacturing industries were also quick to see that, under the new conditions briefly outlined, perfection in selling methods had to be accompanied by reduction in costs of production in order to profitably market their wares. Efficient systems of purchasing and handling raw materials and supplies that would eliminate waste have gradually assumed an importance which they did not command in the past, but as yet the idea is little more than in its infancy because the problem of efficient purchasing, though based upon definite fundamental principles, differs in essential particulars in the application of those principles to different industries.

The application of efficiency to the purchase and distribution of materials and supplies by municipalities represents perhaps the newest idea in city administration. There is no necessity, with an audience such as this, to dwell upon the urgent need of system and efficiency in city purchasing. In practically all our large cities, and I am afraid in most of our smaller cities as well, the definite relation between the supplies required for the city service and the supplies actually purchased is a question into which comptrollers and accounting officers have not gone very deeply. I have listened to interesting addresses upon the very important subject of city budget making, but I have not heard any plan outlined for determining the amount of supply appropriation on the basis of the supplies required for any particular function of city government, where the amount of the appropriation was measured by the quantities needed and the importance of the function for which it was intended. Nor have I listened to any well-defined plan for controlling the unit prices paid for supplies purchased under a budget appropriation by measuring those unit prices against the ruling market prices at the time the purchases were made. I have often known, however, of millions of dollars more or less blindly appropriated in city budgets year after year upon requests of city departments unsupported by any intelligent data regarding quantities actually needed, the unit prices proposed to be paid or the importance of the function to be served.

On the other hand I have watched the working of every part of one of the best devised and most efficient systems of supply purchase and distribution created and used by one of the largest railway corporations on the continent. Through the medium of a central purchasing department I have seen eighty million dollars-worth of supplies and materials purchased annually for every requirement or over twelve thousand miles of railway with its sleeping and dining car services, a trans-Atlantic and trans-Pacific steamship line and a string of high-class hotels extending across the entire continent. Every dollar's worth of this tremendous amount of supplies and materials of all kinds is purchased upon standard specifications—under what is known as continuing agreements with selling firms regulating the prices—with a perfect control over quantities and prices upon requisitions before purchase. Through the medium of centrally located storehouses an equally complete control is maintained over storehouse stocks and the distribution after purchase to thousands of delivery points extending across the continent from the Atlantic to the Pacific. By means of the simplest of forms requisitions are made and filled with amazing promptness, largely because one of the aims of the system is to keep a three months' stock of supplies and materials in greatest demand on hand in the central storehouses all the time. Every form is designed, in addition to contributing to the permanent record, to secure the closest kind of control reports over the quantity and cost of supplies and materials for each function of the different branches of the company's enormous enterprise.

While the fundamental principles underlying a system of purchase and distribution such as I have described are essential to every efficient system, the extent to which and the methods by which those principles can be applied to city purchasing depends in a very large measure upon the character of the legal restrictions which define every administrative function of our cities. The board of directors of a railway company or a private commercial corporation can at will revolutionize every administrative method and introduce in place thereof an entirely new and different system in order to secure a maximum of results. Any suggested improvement in a city's methods of doing business must be worked out within the limits of restrictive laws, unless a sufficiently strong case can be presented to secure legal sanction to further freedom of action. For this reason, even if there were no other, the introduction of modern methods and systematic efficiency into city supply purchasing is a problem which each individual municipality must work out for itself. The results in each case will depend upon the intelligence with which the task is undertaken, and the extent to which actual concrete results secured within a limited field of action are successful in securing the gradual removal of restrictive legislation which prevents further action and the securing of still greater results.

I do not know that I can illustrate what I mean in any more convincing manner than by endeavoring to summarize, in as few words as possible, the lines along which the administration of the city of New York is working to create an efficient system of purchasing supplies and materials required by the various departments of the city government. When the present administration of the city of New York assumed office at the beginning of 1910, a small committee of the governing body of the city was appointed to determine as far as possible the character and probable amount of each class of materials and supplies annually purchased by the city and to formulate specifications under which such materials and supplies might be most advantageously purchased. The committee was directed to report to the governing body from time to time such standard specifications as were prepared in order that the same might be approved for general use by all city departments. As a general direction the committee was instructed to consider first the standardization of specifications for the purchase of materials and supplies which were purchased by the city in the largest quantities. In the city budget for the same year a clause was inserted providing that in so far as possible all contracts and open market orders for the purchase of materials and supplies should be based upon such standard specifications as might be promulgated, and the comptroller of the city was instructed in certifying as to the sufficiency of the appropriation out of which such supply payments were to be made, also to certify that the specifications used in such proposed purchases were standard specifications in all cases where such specifications had at the time been promulgated.

The actual work of determining as far as possible the character and amount of each class of materials and supplies annually purchased and of preparing standard specifications under which such materials and supplies could be most advantageously purchased was entrusted to a small subcommittee, which has since come to be known as the commission on standardization, working under the direction and authority vested in the committee appointed by the governing body of the city.

Some idea of the magnitude of the task undertaken can be had from the fact that the city of New York expends annually some $22,000,000 upon materials and supplies purchased through one hundred or more purchasing officials for the various departments, boards, bureaus and commission under the city government. Here was a condition at the very outset which interfered with the putting into effect of one of the fundamental principles in existing efficient purchasing systems that have produced results elsewhere. Under the provisions of the charter and the laws governing the administrative functions of the city the power to purchase materials and supplies was vested in the heads of the various departments, and those officials were likewise directly responsible for the character and cost of all materials and supplies purchased by them. It was therefore impossible to apply to any improved system of city supply purchase the very important fundamental principle of the centralization of purchasing power, a principle regarded as essential to efficiency in the best existing systems created by private commercial corporations. It also rendered difficult, if not actually impossible, the centralization of distribution after purchase, and made the problem of control over both purchase and distribution far more difficult to solve satisfactorily than the same problem in systems where such centralization could be immediately adopted and put into effect.

The amount of work involved in getting at definite information showing the volume and range of the city's annual supply purchases, and the unit cost and conditions under which such purchases were made was obviously prodigious. It was found that no two of the hundred or more different purchasing departments used the same methods. There was also the amazing lack of uniformity in the character and completeness of the records maintained by the different departments. But intelligent standardization could not be successfully accomplished under the existing conditions without the most complete information, and that information could only be accurately had by tabulating and classifying for a given year the essential details of purchases contained in thousands of contracts and many hundreds of thousands of payment vouchers on file in the comptroller's offices. It has taken the commission on standardization almost two years to complete the colossal task, but the work is now almost finished. With the information thus laboriously secured the commission has been able to work out the following tentative general classification of materials and supplies purchased by the city at a cost of approximately $22,000,000 annually by more than one hundred purchasing departments:

TENTATIVE GENERAL CLASSIFICATION OF SUPPLIES PURCHASED BY THE CITY OF NEW YORK

1. Apparatus (laboratory, etc.).
2. Arms and supplies, ammunition and explosives.
3. Athletic goods (including games, toys, etc.).
4. Books, publications, etc.
5. Cleaning materials and compounds.
6. Cleaners' machines and supplies.
7. Clothing, etc.
8. Cordage, rope and oakum.

9. Drafting and engineering tools, instruments and supplies.
10. Drugs, chemicals, etc.
11. Dry goods, notions, etc.
12. Electrical fixtures and supplies.
13. Fire apparatus and appliances.
14. Food products.
15. Forage (including all food for animals).
16. Fuel (including fuel oils).
17. Furniture and furnishings (including kitchen supplies and utensils).
18. Hardware (not otherwise classified).
19. Hospital supplies and surgical instruments.
20. Iron, steel, and other metals (including castings).
21. Leather, saddlery, belting, hose and hose fittings.
22. Live stock (including horses and all other animals) and laboratory specimens.
23. Machinery and parts (not otherwise classified).
24. Materials of construction (including lumber, timber and building material).
25. Materials for manufacture of prison goods.
26. Miscellaneous.
27. Nails, bolts, nuts, washers, rivets and screws.
28. Nautical supplies (including boats and equipment).
29. Office equipment (other than furniture), supplies and stationery.
30. Oils (lubricating and illuminating), greases and all lubricants.
31. Paints, oils, varnishes and painters' supplies.
32. Pipe, valves and pipe fittings.
33. Photographic materials and supplies.
34. Plumbers', steam fitters' and machinists' supplies.
35. Printed, lithographed, engraved and bound books and forms.
36. Rubber goods (not otherwise classified).
37. Stable equipment and supplies.
38. School supplies (not otherwise classified).
39. Seeds, plants, shrubs, trees, etc.
40. Tools and implements.
41. Vehicles (including automobiles, trucks, wagons, carts, carriages, bicycles and motorcycles).
42. Wire rope and wire.

There is also in course of preparation an alphabetical list of every article of materials or supplies purchased by the city listed under these forty-two general classes. This alphabetical list contains hundreds of articles of both materials and supplies which are used for practically the same purposes. It also contains any number of articles which cannot be found in any trade catalogue because they have been manufactured specially for the city. Supporting the general classification and the alphabetical list of articles of materials and supplies are schedules giving the gross quantities of each article in each general class purchased by every department in the city and showing the unit cost and conditions of purchase in every case. Summarized schedules carry the average unit price paid for each article in each class for every city department, and show the percentage purchased upon publicly awarded contracts and the percentage purchased upon what is known as open market orders without competition. The information contained in these schedules is the basis for standardizing specifications, and the general classification affords a means of handling the otherwise unwieldy mass of information in orderly sequence as far as possible according to the different functions for the use of which supplies are purchased. In addition this systematic marshalling of the essential information effectively discloses practically every abuse which has crept into the existing methods of supply purchase in every city department, and makes it possible to get at, actually and concretely, the resultant waste, and worse, due to over one hundred different loose and inefficient methods. A single example will illustrate what I mean: The city charter permits departmental heads to make emergency supply purchases up to the value of $1000 upon requisition without competition, all purchases of a greater amount being made by public letting and contract. The schedules disclosed that nearly 30 per cent of the gross amount paid out annually for materials and supplies is expended upon open market order purchases at unit prices averaging almost 25 per cent increase over the average unit price paid for the same supplies when purchased upon contract.

This is the first and by all means the most important step taken by the commission in laying the basis for the creation of an efficient system of city supply purchasing upon standard specifications. No great railway or other private corporation would attempt the solution of the problem in this roundabout way. Their methods would be much more direct. A new system carefully planned to meet all requirements would be devised and immediately installed to replace the old and inefficient system. Administrative and other restrictions which might interfere would be at once swept away, and the new method, with every essential principle that could make for efficiency, would be used in place of the old and discarded machine. No such direct and complete method is possible in the case of a municipal corporation. The reform must be made gradually within the limits of legal restrictions until a sufficiently strong case can be presented to demonstrate the necessity for a wider field of action. The changing of the administrative machinery of a municipal corporation to permit of the introduction of new and better methods must always be a much more serious and difficult undertaking than the changing of the administrative machinery of any private corporation for the same purpose. Too much emphasis cannot be placed upon the urgent necessity for the systematic marshalling of essential information showing the weakness of existing systems to demonstrate the necessity for changes in administrative methods essential to the working out of an efficient plan.

As a result of the work done during the past two years the city of New

York is in possession of all the information necessary to intelligently prepare exact specifications covering the entire field of its material and supply purchases and standardize those specifications for use in every department of the city government. It is in possession of accurate data demonstrating the necessity for uniform methods of purchase, distribution and accounting control of its supply requirements. It has also the necessary information to carefully weigh the advantages for and against the creation of a central department for the purchase, distribution and control of the materials and supplies required by all city departments.

Concurrently with the work of compiling the records of supply purchases the commission on standardization proceeded with the formulation of standard specifications for such supplies, the basic data regarding which was most readily obtainable and for which the city annually expended the largest amount of money. Fuel, forage, horses, and food products were the general classes first taken up. The annual expenditure under these classes aggregated something over $6,000,000.

Coal. The city's annual coal bill is in excess of $2,500,000. In the past each purchasing department prepared its own specifications. The result was every conceivable kind of more or less loosely drawn specifications in most of which there was absolutely no quality standard either set up or insisted upon. One of the largest coal using departments in the city purchased its supply upon what is known as the "coal area basis," that is, the specifications required that coal delivered should come from certain well-known mines in certain coal areas. These specifications might have worked well, but the city charter has a provision that in all specifications for the purchase of any kind of supplies, when an article or commodity is specifically named or described, the words "or equal thereto" shall be inserted. This meant that a coal contractor bidding under the specifications framed on the coal area basis could deliver any kind of coal he liked, and the burden of proof rested upon the city to prove that the coal delivered was not equal in quality to that demanded in the specifications.

The city now purchases heat, not coal, under standard specifications upon what is known as the heat unit basis, under which the coal delivered is paid for in exact proportion as it comes up to a fixed standard of physical requirements as determined by chemical analysis of samples taken from deliveries. The new specifications have worked well and the city today is getting a better quality of coal than ever before, moreover, it is getting it at a slight reduction in the actual cost.

Forage. The city employs year in and year out some 5261 horses and its annual bill for forage approximates $1,000,000. For a dozen years forage contracts specified, and the city paid for, the delivery of "No. 1 white clipped oats"—one of the highest and most expensive grades of oats in the market.

In framing standard specifications for forage the commission discovered that the grade of oats known as "No. 1 white clipped" did not come into the New York market at all, and that all the quality gradings for forage sold departments were virtually made by the contracting firms supplying the city. The new standard specifications called for "No. 2 white clipped oats" as officially graded by the New York Produce Exchange. It was then discovered that the same contractors, who for years previous had been able to deliver what they represented to be "No. 1 white clipped oats" the year around, found themselves unable to deliver under the new specifications the lower and cheaper grade of oats known as "No. 2 white clipped" during certain seasons, and it was found necessary to call for the still lower and cheaper grade known as "standard oats" during those seasons. Under the standard specifications the city is now saving many thousands a year and is getting what it pays for, because it insists upon having the official gradings of the New York Produce Exchange as to quality, instead of allowing individual contractors to make their own quality grades for deliveries to city departments.

Horses. The city owned and had in use at the end of 1909 5261 horses of various classes valued at approximately $1,762,435, an average cost of $335 per horse. There were purchased in 1910 1110 horses at a cost of $364,760.50, an average price of $328.61 per horse. There was received for 328 horses condemned and sold during the same year $26,911.30, an average price of $82.05 per horse, so that the actual cost of renewals to the horse establishment during the year was $337,649.20.

In former years each city department which required horses had its own specifications. The result was some twenty-five different sets of specifications, each differing from the other in essential particulars. For instance, the trial period in one department was fifteen days; in another the trial period was twenty days, and in practically all the other departments the trial period was thirty days. Requirements as to weight, size and age were different in practically every department, even when the same class of horse was specified for practically the same kind of work. Many of the specifications were loosely drawn and left important questions, which should have been settled in the agreement of purchase, to the judgment of departmental officials, with the results that disputes very often tied up large payments for many months, with consequent increase in bid prices and a restriction of competition. Others contained special requirements which, not only restricted the market for selection, but had the effect of unduly increasing the cost of the animals purchased under them.

Today every city department is purchasing horses under standard specifications with a universal ten-day trial period, and a uniform classification of the age, weight, sex and size of horses to be purchased for different purposes.

Food products. The city uses annually in its various hospitals, charitable institutions and prisons approximately $1,600,000-worth of all kinds of food products. These purchases are practically all made through four large city departments. In formulating standard specifications for the purchase of the hundreds of different commodities included under the general classification of food products—a great many of them bought under contracts calling for daily deliveries—the commission was compelled to secure uniformity of methods and conditions of purchase before it was possible to promulgate standard specifications. After long delays the difficulties were gradually removed and today the city is purchasing every dollar's worth of food products under exact standard specifications in which the quality, weight and definite character of the product is clearly stated. Where it has been found necessary to use samples as quality measuring mediums the samples set up for that purpose have been carefully standardized and are in use by every city department. It would take too long in an address of this character to go into details of the methods used and the character of the specifications prepared and put into effect covering the many classes of supplies included under the general class head of food products. I have with me, however, copies of the schedules used as a basis for the work of standardization, and will be very glad to go further into the methods pursued and the results accomplished with any who are interested.

Methods of Standardizing. Briefly stated the process of formulating standard specifications involves:

1. The tabulation and analysis of the quantities and cost of commodities purchased by city departments with the conditions under which they were bought.

2. The preparation by a sub-committee of the commission, with this detailed information in its possession, of tentative specifications which are submitted to technical and trade experts for criticism.

3. The submission of these tentative specifications, after they have been revised, to a conference of the members of the commission and the purchasing officials of every city department authorized to purchase the class of supplies therein called for.

4. The submission to each member of the governing body of the city, in the shape of a report recommending their adoption for general use, the specifications thus prepared well in advance of the time when that body is requested to act upon the report for adoption.

Standard form of contract. More than a year ago the commission prepared standard forms for all supply contracts. After a year's use these forms have been perfected from the experience gained from actual use. Today the forms are as nearly perfect as city contract forms can be made and make for economy in printing, uniformity in method and a tremendous saving in time. Intending bidders and departmental officials, knowing that the principle of uniformity exists, are not compelled always to analyze carefully each new contract. The city's law officers approve as to form speedily, and the city is protected against the results of the possible insertion by different departments of special clauses which are likely to lead to litigation and resultant costs.

Standard testing laboratory. The promulgation of exact specifications for the purchase of materials and supplies demonstrated at the very outset the urgent need of exact methods of determining the quality of deliveries. The adoption of heat unit specifications for the purchase of coal carried with it the necessity of submitting samples from every delivery to exact chemical analysis. The standard testing laboratory was created to supply this need with the understanding that its staff and equipment should be increased to meet demands for exact analysis of every kind of materials and supplies. Some idea of the extent to which this element in city purchasing is a vitally important factor can be had from the facts contained in the first report of the director of the standard testing laboratory for the first six months the laboratory was in operation. This report shows that out of 551 samples of some 70 different kinds of materials and supplies, submitted to chemical and physical analysis, 162 samples, or almost 30 per cent failed to comply with the specifications under which they were purchased.

Conclusion. What the city of New York has begun in the way of securing efficient city purchasing it can complete if it so desires. What New York can do in this direction any other city in the country can do, the great majority much more quickly, and with a certainty of securing results in both efficiency and economy within the life of a single administration. The main consideration, in my opinion, is to start right with the fullest and most complete knowledge of the inadequacy of existing methods, and then proceed along well-thought-out lines to put into effect the fundamental principles which have produced the greatest measure of efficiency in the best of existing systems now in use by private commercial corporations. The rapidity with which progress will follow well directed effort in most of our cities depends, in a very large measure, upon the extent to which charter and other legal restrictions may interfere with the process of applying the underlying principles which have already produced the greatest measure of efficiency in the systems of our large private corporations. In this respect the problem is one which must be solved by each individual municipality. Some of our cities will be able to overcome the obstacles in the way of progress more quickly and effectively than others, but in no case is progress along right lines impossible, and in no single instance can such progress fail to produce actual concrete results that will quickly find favor with the best elements in any electorate.

Efficiency in the purchasing and handling of materials and supplies is a problem which is today commanding a very large share of public attention for reasons which I have tried to briefly outline at the beginning of this address. There never has been a time in the history of our cities when intelligent efforts command more thoughtful public attention, and no time when the success of such efforts secures so large a measure of public approbation. There is a universal call for efficiency in this direction, and wise city administrations will see in that call an opportunity to introduce sound principles of efficiency into, not only the purchase and distribution of materials and supplies, but into many other important functions of city government.

Standardization of specifications for the purchase of supplies involves the application of practically the same principles and the utilization of precisely the same methods as are required in the standardization of salaries and grades. The creation of an efficient system of supply distribution requires the application of almost the same principles and the use of similar methods to those which will produce the best results in the efficient distribution of the energies of well trained and adequately paid municipal employees. The development of an efficient system of control over the purchase and distribution of materials and supplies means the application of the same principles and the use of closely similar methods to the development of an efficient system of control, over services of every kind rendered to a municipality, over the appropriation contained in the annual expense budget, and generally over the conduct of its every function.

In securing efficiency in city purchasing, therefore, by the application of the fundamental principles and the use of like methods to those employed in the creation of similar efficient systems by the great commercial corporations of this country, our municipalities are laying the basis for the creation of other systems, applicable to every important function of city government, embodying the highest standard of efficiency known to the world.

SHORT ARTICLES

CENTRALIZATION IN CITY PURCHASING[1]

THAT the public business cannot be carried on with the same intelligence, system and efficiency as private business is a theory the acceptance of which has caused many respectable citizens to view as a matter of course, or at least to tolerate as inevitable methods employed by government which, if applied in private business, they would regard as evidence of incapacity or dishonesty. It is a leading purpose of the National Municipal League and the bureaus of municipal research to destroy this theory and forward the adoption by American cities of business-like, up-to-date and efficient methods. Not very much is gained, it has been learned, by turning out "grafters" and electing "reformers," if the latter, however anxious for "civic betterment," allow the old slip-shod methods, on which the grafters have fattened, to continue. The movement for municipal reform is doing its mightiest work in teaching us that government is an enterprise to all the people, the success of which requires public enlightenment, investigation and experiment.

The purchasing of supplies is obviously an essential function of the city government, which demands honesty and efficiency in the interests of all. Inefficient or dishonest purchasing evidently affects every taxpayer. Shall the purchases be made by the several departments of the city or by a single agency or bureau?

In those municipalities where no central purchasing bureau has been established the heads of departments or commissioners are called upon to conduct the purchasing of the city. The commissioner or subordinates in his office are thus diverted from the work of which they have expert knowledge and required to perform work of which they have no such knowledge. The head of the fire department is not likely to be an authority on soap, which he must buy in large quantities, it may be. Departmental purchasing means to a great extent purchasing by amateurs and violates the great principle of modern science and business, specialization and the differentiation of function. Departmental purchasing, further, means small-scale purchasing which means high prices and makes the city's orders unattractive to wholesalers. Certain articles are required by several departments. It is clearly in the interest of the community that they should be ordered in large quantities and at low prices. Departmental purchasing, moreover, makes uniformity in standard impossible. Stephen W.

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[1] See article on "Efficiency in City Purchasing" by W. Richmond Smith, NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. ii, p. 239.

McGrath, purchasing agent for Cincinnati, in a speech delivered in April, 1912, reported such lack of uniformity in standard as these before the advent of the reform administration: 43 kinds of soap in 52 orders, 21 kinds of ink in 20 orders! Lack of standardization means looseness of specification and impossibility of testing deliveries with precision. Departmental purchasing in addition means lack of uniformity in orders and contracts which may cause serious embarrassment to the city, and lack of *concentrated responsibility* for quality and price. If the city is purchasing inferior stationery at exorbitant price no individual is especially responsible. Against these manifold disadvantages of decentralized purchasing it is believed that no compensating advantages worthy of mention can be brought.[2]

Cincinnati under the present reform administration has instituted noteworthy improvements in its methods of purchasing, following to a great extent the recommendations of the Cincinnati bureau of municipal research. All the city's purchases are now made through a central agency. On taking charge of the purchasing department in January, 1912, Mr. McGrath found a veritable reign of chaos. Each department was buying its own supplies in small quantities and at retail prices. In common articles in use by all departments there was the utmost diversity of standard. The introduction of efficient inspection methods revealed the fact that the city had been systematically cheated by fraudulent contractors. The work of standardization was at once taken up with energy. In an address delivered before the City Club of Cincinnati on April, 1912, only three months after the new administration had come into office, Mr. McGrath was able to report that material progress had been made. All stationery and office supplies of all kinds had been standardized, and were being bought in large quantities at greatly reduced prices. In the single item of pencils the new method of buying meant a reduction in price to the city from $4.60 to $2.20 per gross. On the purchase of soap a saving to the city of 25 per cent had been made. The process of standardization involved the drawing of precise specifications on the basis of a tabulation and analysis of the quantities and cost of articles purchased by the departments in the past. After a conference and agreement between the purchasing agent and the departmental officials concerned these specifications were adopted as the standard. In buying standard articles in large quantities the "continuing agreement" was found advantageous in protecting the city from increases of price without depriving it of the advantages of a falling market. As a result of exact specifications and continuing agreements, terminable on reasonable notice, no time is now lost in asking for bids from contractors or in finding out what quality the department concerned desires. It was found that there was great need of an efficient system of inspecting purchases. A certain vendor, proved to be guilty of furnishing material in grossly deficient quantity, declared that the reformers were getting "entirely too d—n smart," that he had been supplying the city for years and that no complaint had ever been made before! Until the new administration took office the city never enjoyed the customary discount for cash. At present the great majority of its orders are subject to this discount. On the basis of a three-months' experiment in efficiency Mr. McGrath felt justified in predicting that, when the process of standardization had been carried somewhat farther, the city would be saving 10 per cent on its purchases, or about $150,000 a year.

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[2] The advantages of centralized purchasing are clearly set forth by Henry Bruère, in his recent work on *The New City Government*, ch. viii.

Fort Worth, one of the most progressive of our commission governed cities has adopted an efficient plan for city purchasing. A purchasing agent, at a salary of $1800 makes purchases for all departments. Requisitions are made upon the purchasing agent by the division heads in the several departments and, if approved by the commissioner concerned, are sent to his office. As a record a copy of the requisition is kept by the department making it. Invitations for bids are then sent by the purchasing agent to wholesalers and retailers; nearly all the city's purchases are made at wholesale prices. The orders are made in triplicate, one copy going to the successful bidder, one to the department making the requisition and the third retained by the purchasing agent. When supplies are delivered they are checked against the copy of the order in the department which made the requisition, which is then forwarded to the purchasing agent, on the basis of which he certifies the invoices, which are then sent to the auditor for approval and payment.

Under the present administration remarkable progress has been made in Philadelphia in putting the city purchasing on a business-like basis. During the mayoralty campaign of 1911 the bureau of municipal research submitted to the candidates a series of proposals. Under the caption "Some opportunities open to Philadelphia's next mayor" were the following suggestions:

> Establish exact standards and specifications for supplies and materials to be purchased so that the city's agents and the public alike may know just what has been or is to be bought, at what advantage or disadvantage to the city.
>
> Require that the department of supplies be organized and conducted as a highly efficient modern business enterprise, giving to the city the benefit of central buying; to departments the benefit of prompt action; and to dealers the benefit of prompt settlement and business-like treatment in the city's purchase of $3,000,000 of supplies annually.
>
> Secure independent inspection, by a properly equipped bureau under the city controller, of materials and supplies furnished to the city; of service rendered; and of construction work in progress.

The department of supplies under the direction of Herman Loeb is being administered in a manner in keeping with these suggestions. In the first place a business-like system of bookkeeping has been adopted in the making of requisitions, placing of orders and payment of bills. A thorough inspection of supplies delivered has been instituted. Samples of the goods delivered are compared by the inspectors with the specifications, and here use is made of the city's chemical laboratory. Mr. Loeb has further advocated the establishment of a general warehouse, where standard supplies can be stored in large quantities and whence they can be distributed as needed. This would make possible purchases on a larger scale, at lower prices, and would insure prompt delivery of supplies to the departments.

Both in the drawing of precise specifications, which is necessary to safeguard the city's interests, and in the effective testing of supplies furnished to the city, New York has been a pioneer. The testing laboratory conducted by the city is now used for the drawing of specifications for $20,000-000 worth of purchases annually. It is also used in cases of dispute between the department and the contractor, to test deliveries. Especially in the important item of coal scientific specifications and the application of chemical tests to supplies delivered has saved large amounts to the city. The adequate provision made for the standard testing laboratory in the new municipal building shows that the importance of this work is fully appreciated in New York City. Municipal testing laboratories have existed for many years in the larger cities of Europe, but they are in their infancy in the United States. It is clear that efficient testing depends on precise specifications which are greatly facilitated by centralization in purchasing

Departmental purchasing, a heritage of days when our cities were mere overgrown towns, continues in our municipalities as a result of inertia. Wherever centralized purchasing has been given a trial it has demonstrated it superiority to the old method, which is seen to be inefficient because wasteful, inexpert, and irresponsible. Centralized purchasing is an essential part of the efficiency movement in municipal affairs.

Robert Livingston Schuyler.[3]

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THE PUBLIC LIBRARY IN COMMISSION-GOVERNED CITIES

FEW OF those who advocate the commission plan of city government would say that the last word had been uttered as to the best method of adjusting the various departments under this plan of government, or that the classification of the many interests of a municipality under the existing departments is wholly satisfactory. The scant consideration that is given the educational function of the municipality, in connection with municipal government by a commission is surprising when we consider the wide discussion that has been given to the general subject throughout the country. The enlarging group of educational agencies that have developed in the past few years outside the schoolroom, including museums, public libraries, art galleries, free lectures and amusement or recreation halls, calls for fuller consideration in connection with the attempt to define and classify the many interests of the city, as some of these are already recognized as having a large place in the activities of a municipality.

The early promoters of the commission plan apparently did not realize that it might properly include educational interests—not only the public schools, but so called minor educational interests—many of them as vital and as far reaching in their influence as the schools. Sufficient time has now elapsed to reveal some of the handicaps that have been placed upon public libraries under the commission plan by the attempt to classify them in unrelated departments of the city—departments pertaining entirely to material affairs. Clearly the early plans for such a form of government did not contemplate the unrelated and irrelevant grouping of these educational interests such as has developed. Those who have first-hand knowledge of the commission plan are not inclined to condemn it because of certain weaknesses or omissions, when the admirable work which has been done in rescuing cities from the perils of ward politics is so evident; but surely it becomes imperative that readjustment of some sort should be made, to correct the obvious omissions which experience has revealed.

Those who are engaged in public library work and have had opportunities for direct observation in connection with libraries in commission governed cities, are convinced that a continuation of the present method of classifying public libraries in departments entirely unrelated and sometimes unsympathetic, is a serious mistake that should be corrected now that conditions are recognized. The classification of the public library under existing departments,—such as parks, finance, or, public safety,—is illogical and arbitrary; and it is timely to consider the vital question of the relation of popular education to the municipal government.

Some who have written on the subject have urged that there be a commissioner of education as one of the elected officers, who shall have the supervision of the various educational and semi-educational interests. This seems logical, but carried with this suggestion must necessarily be the insistence that each commissioner shall be elected for a specific department, rather than elected as commissioners at large with the assignment made after the election. A "hit or miss" selection of a commissioner of education out of the group of commissioners elected, would be a very uncertain and unwise method of selection for so important a department. Hence, in any discussion of the question of a department of education there must necessarily be the assumption that the commissioners are to be elected for specific departments; and this is a point regarding which there is wide difference of opinion.

Granted that a commissioner of education should be one of the governing board of the city—how shall these special and intricate interests be dealt with by one man? It is reasonable that there should be a departure from the "one man" idea of the commission plan here, because of the unusual problems involved in education. If the schools shall be included as well as the other agencies for popular education named above, the problem is indeed a large and difficult one. If, however, the effort is in line with the trend toward a unit of taxation, it would seem logical that the schools should be included in such a plan; certainly no one would question the necessity of an advisory school board, of which the commissioner of education would be the ex-officio chairman, and such board would elect the superintendent of schools and be especially responsible for the selection of teachers and the educational side of the problem, the commissioner giving personal attention to the finances, buildings, etc., in addition to his general duties as a commissioner.

The chief concern of this article is the public library. Assuming for the present, that education is recognized as a part of the municipal responsibility, and that all classes and ages should have equality of educational opportunity outside the class room, the same reason would apply for an advisory library board, as for a school board, with the commissioner of education ex-officio chairman. This board would deal with the questions of library supervision and extension, the election of the librarian and staff, the selection of books and other matters which are of a sufficiently special nature to call for more careful attention and fuller information than could be expected of one man, a large part of whose time would necessarily be given to the general interests of the city, as well as those of his own department.

Provision is made in the commission plan law, as adopted in some of the middle-west states, for the appointment of three library trustees, among other officers to be selected by the council at its first regular meeting after election; but the law also states that "the council and its members shall exercise all executive, legislative and judicial powers and duties now had, possessed and exercised" by the usual city officers, which are enumerated, including the board of library trustees; hence the powers of such a board are reduced to a minimum, unless by legal opinion, the powers given under the general library law of the state are authorized. Furthermore the indefiniteness of the law as to the total number of library trustees and their powers, clearly indicates that the place of the public library in the general plan was not fully recognized by those who formulated the law.

The responsibility of a municipality for the education and wholesome recreation of those who are entirely outside the school and the class-room is rapidly becoming recognized. The field of the public library is large enough to reach every inhabitant of the city or town with the free use of books for both inspiration and information. No municipality can disregard the fact that well-informed citizens are a safe-guard and source of strength to the community, and that the dissemination of general intelligence is a necessity. An institution for popular education such as the public library, which shall stimulate the study of public questions and make accessible literature on all subjects of municipal interest, is entitled to cordial and helpful recognition.

If, however, those who are students of the commission plan of municipal government doubt the wisdom of creating a department of education, then there seems no logical place for the public library, or, for education, as an integral part of the commission plan as at present constituted.

Another phase of the matter, which should not be overlooked, is the question of civil service as applied to the public library. Civil service, while not an inherent part of the commission plan is usually incorporated into it, and the merit system is one which is surely not to be questioned in this connection. The public library, however, from the character of its work and the necessary qualifications of its workers, both technically and personally, does not belong in a municipal civil service plan, anymore than do the schools. Every library which reaches that stage of growth when a staff of workers is necessary, must adopt standards of service, and methods of selecting workers who are especially qualified to maintain those standards. A good general education, wide knowledge and extensive reading of books, technical ability to arrange and handle collections of books and quick and ready sympathy with the needs and requirements of those who use books—all these are absolute requisites; and professional standards have been established by the library training schools during the past twenty-five years and are generally accepted in the library world. An examination within the library, which tests applicants by these requirements is practical and feasible and is used in many of the best libraries of the country. This is *library* civil service, or, *internal* civil service, and should be *within* the institution, thus exempting libraries as well as schools from municipal civil service examinations, which however good for selecting firemen, policemen, etc., do not apply to specialized educational service.

If, under the commission plan of government, the public library, because of its classification under a certain municipal department, must select its workers from applicants passed upon by the municipal civil service board, and such employees retain their positions under the provisions of that board, whether rendering adequate service or not, as measured by the advancing and enlightened standards of twentieth century library work, then indeed is municipal civil service a calamity for the future of that library. It would be as reasonable for the city hall to pass upon the qualifications of the teachers in our public schools as to fix the standards of service in our public libraries.

Possibly the logic of the situation makes it desirable at this time to consider the question from another point of view, viz: Is education a matter for municipal decision, or is it not rather the larger subject of state concern? Is not the commonwealth so vitally concerned in the question of education that the responsibility is that of the state to say when and how provision shall be made for any phase of public education? If the interests of the state in education are paramount, it will justify the reluctance felt by many to the inclusion of the public schools under the direct municipal control of a department of education. If we shall class public libraries, art galleries, museums and free lectures as educational, the decision which applies to schools will with equal propriety apply to all of these, which are sometimes termed popular educational interests.

The public library movement is taking on such scope and strength in the United States that it cannot be disregarded in dealing with the question of education, and cannot be set aside as a minor educational interest. The field is so broad, the activities so varied in connection with the furnishing and distribution of books to all classes in a municipality, that the American Library Association not only urges the recognition of the public library as an educational factor, but also "the necessity for securing independence of action of the public library as an educational agency *coördinate with the schools.*"

If independence of action is to be secured, it is much more likely to be obtained under the provisions of a general state law regarding libraries, than by municipal action; and the financial support would be more likely to be adequate and stable, if based on a tax provision of the state law, which would apply to all of the cities of the state, whether under the commission form or not. Such law would provide for a Board of Library Trustees either elected or appointed and with definite powers. One of the uncertainties regarding the library, or the school, or any other educational interest, under the commission plan, would be the fluctuation of the maintenance fund, depending largely upon the attitude of the commission as a whole, as to the relative importance of these interests; while under the provision of a state law there would be definite provision for a tax which need not fluctuate and which should be reasonably ample for the development of such interests. The present method of an elected school board which can fix its own tax levy, has this very obvious advantage, when we consider the specific interest involved.

The field to be reached by the free public library, supported by a municipal tax, is only limited by the number of people in the community who are able to read, and who know that the resources of the library are at their command. The great task before the American public library today is to lead the people to realize that the books are there for them, and that there is no interest or concern of theirs but may be definitely advanced and benefited, if only they learn, by means of the printed page, the best that has been thought or said or done regarding it.

Such information often brings actual returns in dollars and cents to the business man and the worker, as well as to the community, and the institution making such information available is a paying investment. Surely the task is no small one, if in addition to this, the public library lifts the toilers and the burdened workers, both in the home and in the business world, for a few hours each week or month, into the realm of imagination and aspiration through books of entertainment that take them out of themselves and into the world of idealism and fancy. The children are the especial concern of the public library and must be given access to the books that are fitted to the needs and aspirations of every growing year, and which may lead them into higher and larger views of life and of the responsibilities of citizenship.

With such a field and such an outlook a municipality cannot afford to hamper this democratic institution, and classify it under the department of finance, or of parks, or of public safety, or of public property, when, if directed in a large and sympathetic manner, the possibilities are great for rendering service to all classes in the community.

Alice S. Tyler.[1]

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[1] Secretary Iowa library commission and director of library extension in Iowa.

MUNICIPAL PENSIONS

BECAUSE a fireman has been half-killed in a burning building is no reason people should dance, if they do not wish to. Yet what frequenter of a city hall has not been compelled to buy tickets for a charity ball, to pay such a fireman's doctor bills? He who has escaped may thank evolution that his city no longer knows the benefit performance and the man with the subscription paper. The municipality has taken over the charity ball and made it into a new branch of government.

The process of change was simple. At first the fireman's fund was sporadic. Then, as gifts were made in recognition of special fire-fighting achievements, it became an institution and required municipal oversight. Formerly the benefits, even for a man permanently disabled, included only a wheel chair and an occasional collection. But justice demanded for him an annuity for life. Other men, too, might become similarly incapacitated. So the firemen gave a part of their monthly earnings and the municipality contributed fees from oil licenses or bonfire permits to provide a permanent fund. But there were men worn out by long service as well as those injured in accidents. Did not the city owe them something? It seemed so. Provision, therefore, was made for retirement of veterans aged fifty-five or sixty, or for the pensioning of all men who had been on duty twenty or twenty-five years. Further fees and tax moneys were appropriated and, lo, the city had become partner in an insurance business.

But that was not all. Here were the policemen, subject to danger and exposure. When they had been provided for, there were the street cleaners, whose risks also were great. And how about the health officers and their assistants? Indeed, if a policeman or a fireman were to be supported in old age because he had worn himself out in making the city safe, why should not the accountant who had grown blind in keeping the city's books? Or, indeed, any employee who had been on duty twenty or thirty years or who was sixty years old? Why not, indeed? These queries carried strong appeal, and so it came about that, while certain cities pensioned their firemen, others their police, and yet others both, a few arranged that benefits might be provided for any of the city's workers. States, even, passed statutes empowering their cities to adopt universal pension plans.

The National Bureau of Labor reported in 1910 that eighty-six municipalities in the United States had firemen's funds and that eighty-one provided for police relief. New York City firemen, policemen, street cleaners, health department employees and teachers all participate in benefits administered by their respective departments, and any other city employee, at the close of thirty years' service, may be pensioned by the board of estimates and apportionment. Pittsburgh employees have organized a mutual benefit association, open to 3500 persons. Chicago has inaugurated the system provided by an Illinois law of 1911, which establishes pension funds for all civil service employees in cities of more than 100,000 inhabitants, excepting firemen, policemen or others already provided for by special schemes. Many states authorize by statute the maintenance of firemen's and police pension systems. By a law of 1910, amended in 1911, Massachusetts permits any city or town, on popular vote, to adopt a retirement plan for all employees. No locality has yet taken action under this statute.

Europe has far outstripped the United States in municipal pensioning, as in social insurance generally. The list of cities which pension all officers and employees includes London, Paris, Berlin, Madrid, Stockholm, Antwerp, Birmingham, Breslau, Dresden, Edinburgh, Frankfort, Liverpool, Lyons, Nuremberg and Rotterdam.

"Pension plans" the municipal schemes are called, but some of them have no element of pension and are purely systems of insurance. In one or two localities official charity is dispensed. The typical arrangement, however, combines pension principle and insurance idea with a naive assumption that they are identical. What, indeed, is the difference?

A special committee on retirement, reporting in 1911 to the New York Civil Service Reform Association, contended that the term "pension" should describe only payments made entirely from the public treasury to "civil employees engaged in hazardous occupations who suffer injury or death in the performance of duty." "Insurance," on the other hand, would be paid from moneys contributed by the employees themselves for their own support in old age. The committee maintained that municipal support of men retired except for accident would be poor public policy. For those who should grow old in the service it recommended compulsory insurance. It contended that if wages were not sufficient so that employees could afford to pay their premiums, such wages should be increased.

Few cities have distinguished between pensions and insurance, either in raising the funds or in paying the claims. In most cases, contributions are made jointly by municipality and employees, the city's proportion usually being much the larger. Funds are paid out for old age and accident benefits alike. Participation by the employee usually is compulsory, premiums being deducted by the controller on basis of the payroll. Some systems are optional, as those of the New York health department and the Baltimore police. A Chicago laborer may be insured only on written application. In Massachusetts an employee participates automatically unless he gives written notice that he wishes to be excused.

Not content with hybrid systems, some cities must have two—even two in the same department. Minneapolis has both a police benevolent association and a police relief association. The income of the former is chiefly from "amusements" and dues, while the latter receives one-tenth of one mill from the tax levy and practically nothing from the employees. Boston has several interesting relics of old plans. The Boston police relief association is voluntary, paying a member $1 a day during sickness and $100 on the death of his wife and insuring his life for $1000. Income from the police charitable fund, which amounts to over $200,000, is expended in benefits by the police commissioner, with the approval of the mayor. The Boston city council has power, in addition, to provide annuities for widows and orphans of officers killed while in discharge of their duty. All of these are provisions supplementing the established pension system.

Boston policemen are retired on half pay. Pittsburgh employees provide their own insurance. Cities in Maine give police pensions of $1 a day. The firemen's relief association of Richmond, Virginia, is entirely a voluntary life insurance organization.

The New York accountant gets a pension free; the policeman contributes 2 per cent of his salary. But the policeman is protected by a sort of insurance, while the accountant depends upon the will of the board of estimates and apportionment. Funds cover the risks of both street cleaners and firemen. The street cleaner pays 3 per cent, the fireman nothing. The New York retirement system was built bit by bit, beginning in 1857, with the establishment of a police pension system, and concluding with two acts of 1911 which provided for retirement from the health department and for the pensioning of employees not otherwise cared for. Teachers contribute 1 per cent of their salaries, and employees in the department of health, for whom participation is voluntary, 1 per cent.

Each fund receives fees collected by its own department. Thus is maintained the fiction that payments do not come from the taxpayers' pockets. Such is the general practice throughout the country. Police pension funds receive fees from issuance of licenses for street peddling, keeping dogs, selling scond-hand goods, giving entertainments and the like; proceeds from the sale of stolen property; gifts for unusual services by the department; police witness fees, etc., and are likely to draw on the liquor tax money. These are revenues aside from the participants' own contributions. Budget appropriations are a last resort. Firemen's funds are drawn from sources similarly related to the fire department. In addition to direct appropriation of $700,000 for the police fund and

$150,000 which that fund received from the sale of special bonds, $1,501,586.93 of revenues of the city of New York went into the various retirement funds in 1911, over and above the contributions of employees. Nor was the scheme for the street cleaning department yet well under way. The city budget for that year was $173,967,835.16.

The Illinois plan, under which the new Chicago system has been organized, provides that each employee shall pay $2 a month. The pension, in case of disability, or after twenty years' service, if the pensioner be fifty-five years old, is $50 a month. No one will become a beneficiary prior to the year 1916, but an arrangement is made whereby persons retiring sooner may continue membership in the association and receive benefits when payments begin.

The Massachusetts system is unusual in that it distinguishes clearly between contributory insurance and payment entirely from city revenues. It defines the first as "annuity" and the second as "pension." The annuity fund is provided by a deduction of from 1 to 5 per cent of each participant's salary, as determined by the board of retirement for his class of employment. The man who draws an annuity is paid a pension of equal amount. That is, he insures himself and the city doubles his insurance.

Rule-of-thumb particularly appears in the differences in premiums required by the various cities, in the variety of sizes of annuities or pensions and in the diversity of terms on which they are offered. Collections vary from nothing to 3 per cent of the salary, or they may be fixed sums of from 50 cents to $2 a month. Benefits may be in specified amounts or they may be in proportion to the salary. They may take the form of life annuities, sick benefits, life insurance or pensions to widows and orphans. In the majority of cases the annuity is half, or not more than half, of the annuitant's salary. The age at which the pensioner retires varies from fifty to seventy, with sixty the most common, and the length of employment ranges from fifteen years to thirty, centering at twenty. There is likely to be a space of five or ten years in which a man may secure a pension voluntarily, before his retirement is compelled. A comparatively young man of long service, too, may be pensioned on the same basis as an older man who has been employed for a briefer period.

With all this confusion, does a city know how much to collect and how much to pay? Trained statisticians say, No. For some systems there is no actuarial basis whatever. The city simply has calculated on one side of the slate how much the employee and the city will be willing to give and on the other side how much the employee would like to draw, has enacted each set of figures into a law and gone about other business. Occasionally someone has reasoned that, where one papers an unmeasured wall with an unmeasured amount of paper, either the paper or the wall space may give out first. Interesting provisions have been made for shortages. Milwaukee, Philadelphia and Providence provide that, where the funds are insufficient, payments shall be pro rata. Amounts of Richmond, Virginia, police benefits are not fixed except as funds warrant. Baltimore provides that, after the usual dues, fees and forfeitures are exhausted, the balance shall be provided by taxation. The Baltimore theory is the one usually adopted. For a rule-of-thumb arrangement it is not bad; it may work as well as has the rough-and-ready system of the labor unions. It is as uncertain for the taxpayer, however, as the pro rata plan is for the beneficiary.

Here, again, Massachusetts demands attention. Her law provides that mortality tables are to be prescribed by the state insurance commissioner for the use of boards of retirement in fixing both premiums and annuities. All retirement associations are to report to the insurance commissioner and are by him to be supervised and examined. The charity ball of a generation ago has become a state system of municipal insurance.

The benefit in a retirement system is not only that to the employee. What the city gains is of no less value, although it is less measurable. Pensioning is not only an expression of justice but also a means of efficiency. It tends to keep good men in their places; it rids the service of wornout workers. Corporations practice it. When cities try it they approach that ideal state which candidates mention, where municipal affairs are run "as I would run my own business." To cast off a worn-out man is cruel. While spending a city's money, the official will not be cruel. If there be no retirement system, the city payroll will be filled with the names of men who should be, and really are, pensioners. In Boston in 1910, when conditions were investigated by the Massachusetts commission on old age pensions, annuities and insurance, 168 employees were over seventy years old and 491 were over sixty-five. The compensation of the 491 was $419,888.45. Of their number, 296 were reported as inefficient. They were paid $200,194.35. Under such circumstances city machinery will creak. Money will be wasted by semi-charities of questionable public honesty which it would be much better frankly to give away.

EDWARD F. MASON.[1]

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[1] Edward F. Mason, formerly of the editorial staff of the Tacoma *Tribune*, is now a student in the School of Journalism at Columbia University. His previous article in the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW (see vol. i, p. 659) was entitled "Learning to Use the Recall."

A THIRTEENTH CENTURY SHORT CHARTER[1]

IN THE year 1200, King John granted the following charter to the city of Northampton.

We will that in the said burg of Northampton, by the general vote of the citizens, there shall be elected four of the more learned and discreet men of the burg, who shall safeguard the interests of the Crown and other matters which to us and our Crown pertain in that burg, and who shall see to it that all the citizens of the said burg, both rich and poor, shall conduct themselves according to law and right.

Other charters in almost identical language were granted about this time to English municipal corporations. The "burgesses" or corporate members of these communities having the right to vote were generally limited to the merchants of the guilds. As the cities grew, this power came to be vested in a small minority of the population. The unenfranchised citizens, with increasing clamor, demanded some share in the city government and eventually this clamor was recognized by the formation of a common council with limited powers. This is the origin of our bi-cameral councilmanic system. It was not based on any sound theory of administration, but was simply a grudging concession made by the burghers to the demands of the populace. Other corruptions complicating municipal machinery crept into the English charters until they became almost as imbecile as American city charters, with the result that one hundred years ago the corruption and inefficiency of English municipal government was as bad as anything we can boast of today.

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[1] The point which Mr. Wallace makes in this article is one of great practical interest as well as historical interest. It is interesting to contrast this thirteenth century short charter with the proposed twentieth century short charter prepared by A. B. DuPont, the street railway expert of Cleveland. It is reproduced herewith in full.

SHORT (Democratic) CHARTER

Article I. All power now possessed by or hereafter acquired by the city of Cleveland in its officers, servants or council, shall be vested in the mayor, subject to modification through the initiative and referendum.

Article II. Legislative action, other than through initiative, shall be by proclamation and shall become effective thirty days after said proclamation but if, within said thirty days, a petition of 5000 electors be filed, said proclamation shall not become effective until sustained by a majority of those voting on the question at the election held in pursuance to said petition.

Article III. Executive action shall be in pursuance to and in accordance with legislation.

Article IV. Legislation may be initiated by the filing of a petition signed by 5000 electors and shall become effective when approved by a majority of those voting on the question at the election held in pursuance to said petition.

Article V. The mayor shall be recalled if defeated at an election held in pursuance of a petition of 15,000 electors filed with the board of elections or where required by law. Said election shall take place on the first Tuesday thirty days after the filing of said petition.

Article VI. Executive and legislative action, except as modified herein, shall be in accordance with existing law until changed in accordance with this charter.

The Englishmen took hold of this problem before we did and have solved it, substantially, by going back to the simplicity of the King John charter. The whole power of the city government is vested in a single councilmanic body and within certain restrictions it may exercise that power as it sees fit. The English courts have been more liberal than our courts in construing the powers of cities and they have, therefore, been able to develop more freely.

About ten years ago Galveston went into the hands of receivers, called a commission, and there was evolved from that accident a form of government which is called the commission form of government and has been widely heralded as a great discovery of this age. It is nothing of the kind. We have simply found out by accident what we should have found out by investigation, namely, that well governed cities almost universally are governed by the simple organ of a councilmanic body with full powers.

We have still an immense amount of debris to clear away before we can get our cities back to where they were in the thirteenth century. There is a striking contrast between the development of municipal corporations and private corporations under English law. The private corporations have maintained until this day the King John form of charter, providing simply for the election of a board of directors and vesting the government in that board. This is mainly due to the fact that efficiency is necessary to the life of a private corporation. A municipal corporation can be a failure and still continue to exist.

The English city government was almost at its worst at the time the United States became independent. We not only borrowed the corrupt forms of English city government, but made them still more inefficient by incorporating into them the impracticable philosophies of eighteenth century France. Historically viewed, the task which now confronts us as city organizers, is to cut away the vast impeding growth of complicated structural form and legal restrictions under which our larger cities today are still smothered.

We will only have accomplished half of our task when we get back to the simple organism of a board of directors or a single councilmanic body. The second half of our task is to give this body power to act. In this word-beridden age, it is hard for our legislators to get out of the habit of defining and limiting the powers of city governments with all the niceties of a lawyer drawing a spendthrift trust. In many states it is felt that in order to get home rule for cities, it is necessary to await a constitutional amendment. A study of the charters of King John would seem to indicate that we can get a very large measure of home rule without any constitutional amendment. The restrictions in most of our state charters are only against special legislation. So long as we persist in hampering our cities with the full detail of working machinery and finely drawn limitations of powers, classification of cities will be necessary, with all the attendant restrictions; but in very few states would a general grant of power vesting the government of a city in an elected council be unconstitutional. A charter can be drawn restricting the city only from such activities as may conflict with the general laws and the constitution. This breadth of intention would have to be clearly expressed on account of the drift of legal decisions in this country construing charter grants to municipalities strictly against the city.

Such a simplified form of charter would accomplish two things. In the first place, it would remove the necessity of classification excepting, perhaps, as to the number of councilmen. In the second place, it would free the cities from their present insupportable position. Cities have different needs, differing conditions, and year by year they are outgrowing their old legal clothes. They cannot be their own tailor, and so are now constantly hammering at the door of the legislature for leave to do some detail of administrative business the way they wish to do it. They have no recognized organ for expressing their opinion on such matters. Political leaders, volunteer bodies of citizens and newspaper articles constitute the means used to persuade the legislature that a community wants any given thing. The legislatures are often in honest doubt as to just what the community does want. By board general grants of power, each community will be authorized to solve these problems for itself.

Both in the amendments to our state constitutions and to our state charters, as illustrated by the record of the past few years, there is still a very strong tendency to great multiplication of detail. This necessarily results in two things. First, a constant agitation to change the fundamental law as conditions change; second, a burden upon the courts to relieve against the fundamental law by judicial decisions which give flexibility to the rigidity of the law. So long as we put this burden upon our courts, they will necessarily have to bear it. We can get rid of all this clamor about government by judicial decision, by carefully studying King John's charter and modeling our fundamental law upon its lines.

Of course, in order to apply this principle to our state governments, with safety, it will be necessary to secure a more efficient form of organization there. For instance, the state of Pennsylvania employs two hundred fifty-seven $1800 men, divided into senate and house, a governor and a supreme court to provide its law. The two legislative bodies are supposed to check each other. The governor checks them both with his veto and the supreme court checks them all by decisions as to constitutionality of acts. Administration is confused by numerous other elective officials with limited powers of various kinds. So complicated and irresponsible a state government must necessarily be inefficient and that is why our legislatures have been hobbled by overgrown constitutions which permit them to take only very short steps in any direction. Here also we might study to advantage, not only the early charters of English cities, but also the present government of England where one legislative body has vested in it all of the law making power.

George R. Wallace.[2]

ST. PAUL'S COMPTROLLER: AN INTERESTING EXPERIMENT

SAINT PAUL, Minnesota, has broken new ground in its commission charter. It has selected as legislative and administrative officers a council of seven, including the mayor, and in this respect it has followed usual lines of commission plan charter practice. These administrative officers have been given full power and authority, subject to initiative and referendum, to do as they please in the carrying on of the city's business. There are few checks and balances in the ordinary sense.

A check has, however, been supplied—the check of effective publicity. St. Paul has as an eighth elective officer a comptroller, having no part whatever in administering the business of the city, except in connection with finances and the countersigning of documents and contracts. His function is that of controlling, checking and publicity officer. Pains have been taken that he may get possession of the facts which he would make public.

He has no patronage except the appointment of a personal staff, and that is not large. The comptroller is given an auditor, and an engineering officer for the purpose of inspection and the developing of facts.

First of all such an officer must be put effectively in possession of the significant facts relating to administration. To do this we have provided that the comptroller shall install and supervise an accounting system for the city, and keep controlling accounts with all departments and officers.

This means nothing more than that he shall see that such a record is made of facts as to revenue received, revenue spent, purchases, salaries, costs, work performed, as to present to him at all times an intelligible summary of these facts. The usual well digested accounts will deal with the revenue and expenditure sides.

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[2] Of Pittsburgh. Formerly a civil service commissioner and an active member of the committee which drafted the present charter for that city.

Authority is given the comptroller to require systems of cost accounts. His inspector may be used to control inspections, and the comptroller may install such a system of inspection records for each department as may readily yield to control. In other words he is in position first to know that the books on the face of them show that the money has been properly spent and accounted for, for lawful purposes, and second that value has been received for the money spent, or the services rendered.

As part of that plan of control, we have made the comptroller the civil service commissioner. I want to call attention to the fact that St. Paul is a city of 225,000 inhabitants, and the comptroller can take up the direction of this service with his other duties without being overloaded. Whether such a system might successfully be applied to New York or Chicago or Philadelphia, is for the moment beside the point.

The situation resolves itself in this way: Civil service systems are for the purpose of controlling employment in public office with a view to securing efficient help and seeing that such help is efficiently managed. That control heretofore has been in the hands of the local executive officer, the mayor, through his appointees, or it has been in the hands of the governor of the state through his appointees.

Control is not the business of the mayor; his task is administration of city business. Control and administration cannot be joined in the same officer without making the control a farce. The appointees of the mayor, who are the creatures of the mayor, cannot be expected to control him. Neither is the governor a controlling officer. Even if he were successful in controlling the internal administrative system of a city he would be giving it irresponsible government; violating the principle of home rule. There is no excuse in systems of democratic government for having any political sub-division controlled in local business by an officer not responsible to the people of that sub-division and to them alone.

St. Paul met the problem by placing civil service control in the hands of the officer in which it placed accounting control and financial control, the comptroller. He is elected by the people and responsible to them alone. Without the power of spending money, or of appointing any considerable number of employes, he can make a record only by seeing that other officers do not abuse these powers.

By giving him charge of the civil service, we place in his possession another class of significant facts, of the utmost importance in the control of administrative departments. He has as comptroller at his disposal a great many of the facts which he needs as civil service commissioner. It is an economical plan as well as an effective plan.

Of course in the civil service he will act through civil service executive clerk or examiner, just as in the inspection service he will act through an engineer and in the accounting service through an auditor and accountant.

Besides collecting these facts and making them available to himself for control purposes, he is obliged to digest these facts, place them in understandable form, and give them to the public periodically—at least monthly.

As a portion of the plan of giving him financial control, we make the comptroller a necessary factor in the issue of bonds, in the final execution of contracts, in the making of the budget. In the process of budget-making he comes into possession of another set of facts, of crucial importance in working out control. His budget may be increased or cut down, but not radically increased.

It has been suggested that the comptroller may yield to pressure in this budget-making, should the council threaten to cut down his allowance for help. Salaries of his department are fixed for definite terms by administrative ordinances not in issue at the time of passing upon the budget. Should the council and the mayor attempt to change administrative ordinances and hamper the comptroller while the making of a budget was pending, the attempt would be so obvious and the circumstances so sinister, that the comptroller might confidently appeal to public sentiment and receive complete protection.

St. Paul has made its comptroller far more important than the comptroller of any city with which I am acquainted, but it has limited him strictly to control and publicity functions. He is given control of fact records, or accounts, including inventories of city property; control over bond issues, control over contract execution, control over budget-making, control over civil service appointments and discharges. It is made his duty to make public an intelligible summary of facts developed along all of these lines. We believe in thus assigning to an elective, non-administrative officer all control functions and giving him authority to make his control effective and complete, we have blazed a trail which municipalities and states will follow as soon as they see what has been done. This, we hope, is especially true of the civil service. St. Paul, we believe, has placed this civil service control where it should be, in the hands of an elective officer responsible to the people served by the civil service controlled.

J. W. Bennett.[1]

THE RECENT ENGLISH BOROUGH ELECTIONS

ALTHOUGH the municipal elections that were held throughout England on November 1, 1912, presented little that was unusual or surprising to students of English local government and politics, they illustrate, or at least recall to mind, some of the features of such contests in England which may strike those persons acquainted only with similar phenomena in the United States as interesting if not peculiar.

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[1] Of the St. Paul *Dispatch*.

In the first place it is to be noted that in English municipal elections, which occur annually in November, the voting is for councillors only, not for a number of executive officers also, as is the usual case in the United States. Only one-third of the councillors are elected each year for a period of three years.

The nominations are by petition of ten registered voters and the official ballots contain no party designations. While the candidates usually line up for local elections under the banner of the various national parties and are supported by the local organizations of these parties, the central party organs make no attempt to dictate to the local associations who their candidate shall be. It is no doubt true that, generally speaking, a liberal in national politics will vote for a liberal candidate in the municipal elections and that a conservative will ordinarily support the conservative candidate, but there is no necessary connection between the national and the local policies of either one of the parties. Owing to the relatively light vote for borough councilmen the majority of the council may well be and not infrequently is of one party while the representatives from the constituency in the house of commons belong to the other.

Third candidates are uncommon, though labor candidates and independents and even socialists now and then succeed in electing some councillors.

Perhaps the most striking feature of the qualifications for candidacy is the fact that not only is residence within the ward or borough not a necessary qualification for voting but even candidates need not as a matter of law, and do not as a matter of practice necessarily reside in the ward or even borough in which they are elected. The law permits a person who satisfies all the other requirements for voting to reside outside of the limits of the municipality to a distance of seven miles and still be an elector. In the case of candidates this radius is increased to fifteen miles and as a matter of fact there are in each election a surprisingly large number of these non-resident candidates; thus violating what to most Americans seems the fundamental principle of having the candidate reside in the district he represents. This feature of the English elections—parliamentary as well as municipal—manifestly operates to eliminate the evils of ward politics.

Another striking feature of English municipal contests, illustrated again in these recent elections, is the fact that at each election there are a large number of seats that are not contested at all, and where consequently there is no election contest. This peculiarity, which again is just as marked in the parliamentary elections, serves of itself to free English local elections from much of the corruption that is incident to municipal elections in this country. But it may be added that the English "illegal and corrupt practices act" imposes very minute restrictions on the campaign activity of the candidate and his followers. Furthermore where there are contests for seats, there are rarely more than two or at most three candidates in spite of the simple nominating method. Not only is the number of candidates small, but the number of voters who go to the polls are frequently only about 25 per cent of all who are entitled to vote.

Unmarried women and widows are eligible to be elected as councillors. In the provinces the disqualification of married women prevents any considerable number of women candidates from running, but in London where married women are admitted to candidacy there are always a number of aspirants.

Conditions are somewhat different in the London boroughs in almost all of these respects from those in the provincial towns, though not to a very marked extent. London is divided up into twenty-eight metropolitain boroughs, besides the city of London, and in these the elections come only every three years, and all of the councilors are elected at the same time. Furthermore, the local parties have distinct names in the borough councils, as also in the London county council, being called moderates or municipal reformers and progressives, respectively, instead of conservatives and liberals. But this does not prevent the party division from being about the same as in parliamentary elections, though frequently the majority in the councils is of the opposite party to that of the parliamentary representatives from the same areas.

Turning now to the actual results of the election in the provincial towns it is seen that all parties made some gains and suffered some losses. According to the returns in the London *Post* of November 2, the unionist and conservative gains together were 56; those of the liberals 30; those of the labor party 23; those of the independents 9; those of the socialists 4. This does not mean net gains, however, and it is impossible to see from the returns just what the losses of each party were. According to the information available it seems that the unionist-conservative losses were 26; those of the liberals 40; those of the labor party 7; those of the independents 3 and those of the socialists 4. This leaves the conservative-unionists with a net gain of 30; the liberals with a net loss of 10; the labor party with a net gain of 15; the independents with a net gain of 6; and the socialists with neither gain nor loss. The excess of 41 total gain over the total loss is to be accounted for partly by the fact that the returns were not completely available, partly by the fact that some of the party gains were from local parties that were not listed, and partly by the fact that the number of councillors was increased in some boroughs prior to this last election.

It is apparent from the figures that no very far-reaching changes resulted in the constitution of borough councils by the recent elections. This is the more obvious when it is remembered that the party gains and losses are spread over more than 350 boroughs and that moreover in any given borough only one-third of the council was voted for. Add to this the further fact that in a large proportion of the boroughs a number of the vacancies were not contested at all but left to the prior incumbent without a vote it will not seem surprising that in a large number of boroughs there was absolutely no change in the political makeup of the councils as a result of the elections, and that among those boroughs from which reports were available there were only two in which the majority in the council was altered by the last elections.

In the London borough elections the changes were even less apparent. Prior to the last election the parties controlling the 28 metropolitan boroughs were moderates, 24; progressives, 3; independents, 1. As a result of the last elections the moderates now control 23, the progressives 3, and the independents 2.[1]

One of the interesting features of the London elections was that out of something over 50 women candidates 18 were successful, as compared with 10 out of 61 who ran in the elections of 1909. The women councillors are distributed among the parties as 8 municipal reforms, 2 progressives, 6 labor party and 2 independent.

There were 276 uncontested seats assigned, mostly to municipal reformers and in two entire boroughs there were no contested seats. For the 1100 contested seats there were only 2500 candidates in the field.

Another feature of the last elections in London was the unusually small poll. As stated above, the vote in municipal elections is generally small but this year it seems to have been even smaller than usual. According to Mr. Galton the explanation of the small poll, and at the same time of the insignificant progressive vote (for he maintains that the larger the vote the better the vote of the progressives) is partly in the fact that the polling day was on a Friday, which he states is the worst possible day for the laborers, and partly in the fact that the war in the near East and the autumn session of parliament prevented the newspapers from giving much space to the borough elections.

Mr. Galton contends, furthermore, that while the liberals are in power the progressives strain every nerve to prevent a progressive majority from being elected to the local authorities, and that this as true of the borough councils as of the London county council. The London *Post*, on the other hand, a moderate newspaper, maintains that the progressives are not enthusiastic about their fight for the borough councils because they want them abolished with the hope of then controlling the county council and thus dominating the whole of the municipality. The elections for the county council which occur in March of this year promise a closer contest between the progressives, who were in power for 15 continuous years from 1889 until 1906—although in national politics London was conservative—and the moderates or municipal reformers who came into power after the liberal party had carried the London constituencies by a large majority.

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[1] According to Mr. Galton, secretary of the London Reform Union, the moderates now control 22, the progressives 4 and the independents 2, a difference to be explained by the fact that in one of the boroughs the parties are equal and hence both reformers and progressives claim that borough.

This brings us to a consideration of the platforms of the two principal parties in the London elections. According to the campaign literature of the municipal reformers or moderates their program includes the maintenance of the borough councils to deal with local affairs as heretofore; relief for the ratepayer by securing further grants from the national government for services preponderantly national in character; the limitation of municipal trading to such undertakings as cannot be effectively carried out by private enterprise. They decry the progressives as the socialist party. The other party stands, according to Mr. Galton, for greater centralization and for equalization of rates in London, for an extension of municipal enterprise, and for fair and generous treatment of labor. According to his view the municipal reformers are opposed to these ideas. As the county council is charged with the functions that pertain to the whole of London there are not many points on which the contest can turn throughout all the boroughs in London.

As regards the conduct of the campaign both in London and the provincial cities, the London *Municipal Journal* regrets that matters were so generally brought in to arouse political enthusiasm which had only a remote connection with party politics instead of letting municipal elections be fought on municipal issues. Especially reprehensible does the *Journal* find the general promises of candidates to reduce rates, when it is apparent to every one that in the very nature of things rates must continue to go up and that no party can relieve the ratepayers.[2]

HERMAN G. JAMES.[3]

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[2] According to an Associated Press dispatch dated London, March 6:

The municipal reformers for the third time gained today a majority in the London county council, although not so large as in 1907, when they had a majority of forty. They improved their position, however, over 1910, when their majority was two.

Of the 118 members elected today, 67 are reformers and 51 progressives. The nine seats gained by the reformers and the two by the progressives are widely distributed and indicate no specially noteworthy change of opinion.

The reformers, who are allied in opinion to the conservatives in parliament, besides increasing their majority to sixteen, will be able still further to strengthen it by the election of ten aldermen.

Municipal ownership of the street railways was the chief issue in the election. The council already owns and operates 146 of these, built when the progressives (who in imperial policies are liberals) were in power. The members of this party favor the extension of the system and other legislation which would place the municipally owned roads in a better position to compete against the privately owned transportation companies. Their opponents, the municipal reformers, are conservative in municipal affairs and were never enamored of public ownership. Very few extensions have been made since they came into power three years ago.

The council consists of a chairman chosen by the council, nineteen aldermen, also chosen by the council, and 118 councillors elected by the ratepayers direct. It has administrative authority over an area of 117 square miles in matters of a general nature. The annual expenditure is about $75,000,000, more than half of which is for education.

[3] Adjunct Professor in the School of Government, University of Texas.

THE INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE FOR THE SCIENTIFIC STUDY OF THE ALCOHOL QUESTION[1]

THE first meeting of this body was held at the College de France, Paris, January 27 to 29. The opening exercises were conducted by M. Emile Loubet, former president of the French Republic, who is the honorary president of the international committee. Delegates representing the different national groups attended from the following countries: Austria, Belgium, France, Germany, Great Britain, Italy, Russia, Switzerland and the United States. In all, there were forty-three committee delegates.

Among the men of special note who took part may be mentioned: From Austria, Baron Vladimir von Prazak; from Belgium, Professors Zunz and Schoofe, both of the Commission Permanente de l'Alimentation Humaine; from France, professors of the College de France, d'Arsonval, Gautier and Bordas, M. Yves Guyot, former minister of public works, M. Ribot, former prime minister of France, M. Lucien March, director of statistics, Prof. Levy, the economist; from Germany, Dr. Königsberger, Dr. Hartman (both connected with the International League for Comparative Legislation and Political Economy) and Count Schweinitz; from Great Britain, the Right Hon. Lord Lamington, privy councillor, Professor Dixon of Cambridge University and Professor Armit of the Lister Institute; from Italy, Commandatore Magaldi, vice-president of the National Institute of Insurance, and Professor Niceforo; from Russia, His Excellency Alexis Yermoloff, secretary of state to the emperor, etc., Professor Poussepp, vice-president of the Psychological Institute at St. Petersburg; and from Switzerland, Dr. Gobat, councillor of state, and Professor Milliet.

Several of the countries had sent official delegates representing ministeries in the different governments or public institutions. Thus the French ministeries of the interior, finance, foreign affairs, war, navy and agriculture were officially represented. For the United States, Consul-General Mason of Paris was delegated by the state department to attend and report the meetings which were necessarily conducted in the French language.

The earlier sessions were given over to a discussion of the general program of study. Each national group had prepared its suggestions in advance. Some of them were very elaborate, not to say over-ambitious, and hardly practical for the purposes of an international body. It was therefore resolved that the brief French program should be used as the basis for discussion. After many hours of debate and explanations, the following general program was unanimously adopted:

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[1] See article in NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. i, p. 680.

ARTICLE I

Does alcohol possess any nutritive properties?

ARTICLE II

a. What is the relative influence of the forms in and customs under which alcohol is consumed?

b. What are the effects of the degree of alcohol and of foreign substances added to it or derived from the distillation of fermented products?

ARTICLE III

a. What are the principal causes and what are the principal effects of alcoholism?

b. What are the principal means employed to combat alcoholism and what are their results?

ARTICLE IV

A critical inquiry into the different national statistics relating to the production and consumption of alcohol and of alcoholic drinks.

ARTICLE V

The various inquiries may have reference to colonies as well as to the mother country.

With reference to Article IV, the following resolution was adopted:

"Each national group shall appoint one or more reporters whose duty it shall be:

1. To present all the official statistical documents for their respective countries relating to the production, consumption and effects of alcohol;
2. To accompany these documents with a critical commentary indicating in detail so far as possible the causes of error which affect the respective statistics.
3. It is desirable that these statistical documents shall cover a period of twenty years.
4. At the end of November, 1913, each reporter shall send the results of his inquiry to a reporter-general whose duty it shall be to control the whole work, so that it may be carried out according to a uniform plan, and thus made comparable for the different countries. Thereupon the reporter-general shall present the whole of these reports to a general meeting which will probably be held at Easter time in 1914."

To some the international program as finally adopted may seem altogether too general and elementary. Considerable inclination was shown at first to be more elaborate and specific. It was pointed out, however, that the desideratum is a plan of work so broad that it meets the common needs of an international body and yet affords the different national groups an opportunity to consider conditions of special interest to them. To fashion a program in detail which might have answered all the wants of each participating country would probably have been an impossibility.

It was emphasized that the adoption of the international program would in no wise prevent the different national groups from laying stress upon special studies of peculiar interest to their countries. Moreover, it will be noted that the terms of the international program are so broad that it is feasible to comprehend under them practically all of the suggestions made, for instance, by the American section, as will be seen from the subjoined program framed by it and submitted to the general meeting.

SUGGESTED AMERICAN PROGRAM

1. The food value of the different alcoholic beverages.
2. The physiological and psychological results of the drinking habit, in their relation to the kinds of alcoholic beverages consumed.
3. The relation of drinking to morbidity.
4. The relation of drinking to mortality.
5. The relation of drinking to economic efficiency.
6. The effects of parental inebriety upon the birth-rate and offspring.
7. The relation of the drink habit to mental disease.
8. The relation of the drink habit to crime.
9. Liquor legislation: (a) fundamental principles of regulation; (b) fundamental principles of the taxation of the manufacture and sale of intoxicants.
10. The social treatment of inebriety; (a) by the state; (b) by private endeavor.
11. The effects of changes in the drink habits of the American people.
12. Statistics of the liquor problem.

A particularly instructive discussion preceded the resolution concerning the proposed study of the statistics of the production and consumption of alcohol and of the effects of alcohol. Professor Milliet, M. Lucien March and others showed how utterly unreliable these statistics are at present, and how they give rise to fallacies not only in regard to the extent of the production and consumption of alcohol, but also in regard to the actual extent of alcoholism. The air will be greatly cleared by a scientific presentation of the whole subject.

In regard to the methods of organizing the international committee there was at the outset a marked difference of opinion. For various reasons which need not be fully restated here, it seemed inexpedient to try and work out a form or organization at the initial general meeting. Among other things, several of the delegates felt that they had not sufficient authority in this respect without specific instructions from their sections. Instead the following resolution was adopted:

> The general assembly decides that a drafting commission (*commission constituante*) shall be created and invites each national section to elect one of its members as a delegate to this commission. The drafting commission shall be charged with formulating the statutes in regard to the organization and constitutions of international committee for the scientific

study of the alcohol question and shall accomplish its task within six months from February 1, 1913. The national sections shall give notice of the members thus elected to the already existing provisional bureau, whose duty it shall be to assemble the drafting commission and to see to it that the latter discharges the duty with which it is entrusted. The provisional bureau shall receive the plans formulated by the drafting commission and convoke a general assembly to take action on them; and meanwhile it shall conduct the affairs of the international committee."

In explanation of the above it may be said that for some months a provisional bureau has been maintained at Paris, which had charge of the work preliminary to the first general meeting.

It is expected that the drafting commission will convene some time in May, probably at Brussels. When the next general meeting is to be held will then be decided.

At the closing session, a brief presentation was made of the work of the psycho-neurological institute at St. Petersburg and plans were submitted of the new department for the treatment of alcoholics and study of alcoholic diseases. The vice-president of the institute brought an official invitation to the medical members of the committee to use its laboratories for scientific study as it offers facilities hardly to be obtained elsewhere for carrying out a part of the international program. The invitation was received with much favor after Professor d'Arsonval and others had told of the value of the institute, which from now on is to be known as the international institute for the study of alcoholism.

One may fairly say that the project of forming an international body for scientific study of the alcohol problem, which has been agitated for two years or more, is now realized. The formalities of organization which yet remain will not hinder the different sections from beginning active work. Both on the part of the scientific men present and the official delegates keen interest was shown.

In all likelihood some of the sections will receive subsidies from their respective governments for carrying on the different inquiries. In other countries, notably Great Britain and the United States, the necessary means must be obtained from private sources. The different groups will also be asked to contribute toward the expenses of a central bureau.

It will probably take several years before the international committee can finish its work. The field is large and in some countries practically untilled. Perhaps no delegate to the Paris meeting entertains the hope that what is commonly spoken of as a "solution of the alcohol question" will be reached through the projected studies. But it is something to make progress and present facts upon which rational action may be based in the future. The hope for it lies in the fact that representative men of some principal countries in the world are joining hands in a scientific study. It is fully expected that several other countries will take part later on. There may be differences of attitude toward the drink problem among those who were present, but they will approach it without bias, simply concerned to find out and state the truth.

It is interesting to note that at the Paris Meeting frequent mention was made of the work of the American Committee of Fifty which, it was confessed, furnished the idea of forming an international body; and the wish was freely expressed that the results of the new undertaking may fully measure up to the standard set in the United States.

John Koren.[2]

THE NEW YORK POLICE INVESTIGATION

ALTHOUGH those who have opposed the present police inquiry by the board of aldermen of New York are declaring that the investigation by this committee has been a publicity campaign with a view to making the police department a political issue for the coming election in New York City, and although those in power and in charge of the administration have endeavored to obstruct at every turn the inquisitors, this committee by the first of May will have completed the first intelligent study and analysis of the administration of police in the city of New York.

When the committee started its work in the summer of 1912, the opinion was general in New York that the investigation was to be "a hunt for the grafters," and that a small army of detectives would be assembled for the purpose of running down these police grafters and creating a sensational scandal in the city which might well be used as political capital later on.

Great fear was felt that this aldermanic committee would become so ambitious in its desire for publicity of a sensational character, that it would meddle and tamper with the investigation already begun by the district attorney of New York County, which would result in chaos and perhaps in giving immunity to a number of vicious police officials who might be turned up as grafters in the course of the investigation.

Much to the satisfaction of all those who wish well for New York and its citizens, and I might say to the surprise of the many civic agencies in New York, out of what seemed to be and almost was, a hysterical condition, grew a well defined, honest, sincere, and constructive analysis of the police department by the aldermanic committee. This study not only in no way interfered with the district attorney in his research for violators of the law, but on the contrary brought about a coöperation between counsel for the aldermanic committee, Emory R. Buckner, and the district attorney's office which has resulted in a great many indictments and prosecutions by the district attorney's office and a comprehensive study of administrative police matters by the aldermen.

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[2] Secretary of the American section, member of the committee on liquor problem of the National Municipal League and president of the American Statistical Association.

The police department was divided into various branches, and under the supervision of the Bureau of Municipal Research, accountants, investigators, and experts were sent into them to examine carefully their methods and operations. In order to reach a diagnosis, in its effort to locate the disease from which the department is suffering, the aldermanic committee has called in within the last week many doctors on police, among them George B. McClellan, who served two terms as mayor of New York City; Seth Low, who served one term; District Attorney James C. Cropsey, a former police commissioner; Chief City Magistrate William McAdoo, a former police commissioner; Arthur Woods, former deputy police commissioner; Bert Hanson; John McCullough, former chief of police of the city; and a number of others who have been connected with police work in the city at some period.

The testimony of these men as experts varies so much that the problem of diagnosing in order to find a remedy is made very difficult for the committee. The difference of opinion as to "just what is the matter with New York's police?' and the remedies suggested to cure these ills, may be best illustrated by extracts from the record.

Questions which have been uppermost in the minds of those interested in the police problem in New York, and even elsewhere, have been "what should be the tenure of office of a police commissioner," "who should appoint him," and "how should he be removed."

On these points various experts testified as follows:

J. C. Cropsey, former police commissioner: Personally, I would not favor having any fixed term for the police commissioner; I would not have the police commissioner elected; I would have the police commissioner appointed by the mayor and subject to his removal at will.

William McAdoo, former police commissioner: During the term I was police commissioner, I became convinced that the first cardinal weakness of the police administration in New York is the tenure of the commissioner. The commissioner has absolutely no tenure of office . . . . The result of it is this, if he is a very able and honest man all the crooked and inefficient element in the police department want to get rid of him, so from the time he takes office—and they have his measure—they begin counterplotting against him. They will even go so far as to create a crime wave through the newspapers, as they think that is the speediest way of putting them out . . . . My idea is that the police commissioner ought to be appointed by the mayor for a term of ten years, not less, and should not be subject to removal except by the appellate division of the supreme court on trial and charges made.

Leonard F. Fuld, civil service examiner and author of "Police Administration": I should think that the police commissioner should have a fixed term. At least he should have as secure an office as his subordinate, the patrolman . . . . He should be appointed by the mayor, subject to removal upon charges.

George B. McClellan, former mayor: I believe the police commissioner should be appointed by the mayor and subject to removal only upon charges . . . . It might even be wise to give him a public hearing.

Seth Low, former mayor of New York: I am sure the governor exercising state functions should have the right to dismiss the police commissioner after hearing charges, but the mayor of the city should appoint the police commissioner and have a right to remove him at will.

Arthur Woods, former deputy police commissioner: If the police commissioner should be appointed by the mayor for a term, we will say, of ten years, subject to removal by the mayor arbitrarily, but only after a public hearing in which the police commissioner has full opportunity to be heard, to be represented by counsel if he chooses, I think that we should have an improvement over the present situation. Give the police commissioner the assurance that he will stay ten years in office, unless the mayor is ready to brave public opinion in removing him . . . . My object would be to make it difficult for a mayor to remove a police commissioner for improper reasons, and yet make it easy for a mayor to remove a police commissioner for proper reasons.

Frank Moss, former police commissioner: My opinion is there should be one commissioner, as there is at present; that he should be appointed by the mayor; that he should be subject to removal at will by the mayor . . . . I think that it was a mistake to abolish the office of chief of police.

In the city of New York policemen before being dismissed from the force are entitled to a trial before their commissioner or a deputy, and this trial takes the form of a court procedure, the policeman being represented by counsel. After dismissal the policeman is entitled to a court review. Police commissioners and experts on police,—if there be any—are at a wide variance as to the efficiency of this law. The differences of opinion on this subject can be more fully appreciated by the following extracts from the record of the inquiry.

James C. Cropsey on this point testified as follows:

> I would give them (members of the police department) certainly no less protection, and neither would I give them any more protection, than any other civil service employees . . . . that would mean, that a man about to be removed . . . . would have an opportunity for making an explanation, a chance to present an explanation or his excuse, then before he can be dismissed or when he is dismissed, if at all, the head of the department should file in writing the reasons for his dismissal.

Chief Magistrate McAdoo, former police commissioner, when asked his views on this question, had this to say:

> A patrolman must have security. Must know that he has a tenure of office. . . . . I had a plan worked out, followingthe lines of the army and the navy in the United States, that I thought would be a good substitute for the present system. The highest penalty now for a policeman is thirty days' fine or removal. I have always believed that there should be an intermediary punishment like demotion, that is, in those fixed ranks where a promotion is not an arbitrary matter; but above all I think that the thing would be this: that the finding of facts by the police commissioner, through his deputies, should be final. The question of review before the higher court would then be this: Did this man have a fair trial? Were his constitutional and legal rights under the charter and under the law observed? . . . . The only question for review should be whether he was tried regularly. There I would stop, and I would not go any further in arbitrary demotion.

Assistant District Attorney Frank Moss, also a former police commissioner, at a different point of view testified as follows:

> I think a patrolman ought to have the right of review. Probably the present method enlarges that right of review more than is necessary. I have thought that there might be a special board of review legally created by which the sentence of a policeman might be reviewed quickly and on a broader basis than is done in the courts. There are not so many men restored.

Arthur Woods, former deputy police commissioner, gave an entirely different point of view. He said:

> I do believe that if a policeman's offence has been so serious that he has been justly and properly dismissed from the force, he ought not to go back on the force. I believe it is important for the general morale of the force for him to stay off. I think he should have the right to a court review of his dismissal, and if court decides that the dismissal was not merited, he should be allowed to bring a suit for damages against the city.

Bert Hanson, a former deputy who served as a trial commissioner, agreed in some respects and said:

> I think the reinstatement question is a very serious thing, and I think that under no circumstances should a man be reinstated on the police force. If he has been improperly dismissed, he should have redress in some other way. I think that it would be cheaper for the city to pay him damages than to take him back on the force, and in fact a good deal better.

On the question of whether or not the head of the force should come from the uniformed ranks rather than be a civilian, almost all the experts have agreed but vary in their opinions as to just whether there should be a chief of police and if there should be a chief, just what his powers should be. Some believe that there should be a permanent chief who should rise from the ranks, receive a much higher salary than the other inspectors, and be given full control of the uniformed force, subject to the approval on matters of policy by the commissioner. Former commissioner Frank Moss was strongest in favor in this, while Mr. Cropsey believed that there should be a head of the uniformed force, regardless of what he was called, who would be directly under the control of the commissioner, subject to appointment and removal at will by the commissioner.

All of the experts are agreed that the present salary of the police commissioner of New York is entirely too small, and the majority have recommended a salary of $15,000 a year.

The constructive study of various bureaus of the department, and particularly that of pensions, will be continued until about April 1, when the reports and recommendations of the various experts now engaged in examing the department will be filed.

CLEMENT J. DRISCOLL.[1]

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[1] First deputy under former Commissioner Cropsey. He is now supervising the police studies which the New York Bureau of Municipal Research is making in behalf of the aldermanic committee.

NOTES AND EVENTS

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I. GOVERNMENT AND ADMINISTRATION

The Commission Government Movement.[1]—The meeting of thirty-seven legislatures in the early months of 1913 and the adoption of home rule amendments last November in Ohio, Nebraska, and Texas has been the occasion for unusual activity throughout the country in the field of city charters.

The following cities should be added to the list of accessions to the commission government movement during 1912 and 1913: Fort Smith, Ark.; Denver, Col.; Pensacola, Fla.; Cairo, Harrisburg, and Murphysboro, Ill.; Ottumwa, Iowa; Garnett, Hiawatha and Sabetha, Kan.; Alexandria, Jennings, Natchitoches, Lake Charles and New Iberia, La.; Vicksburg, Miss.; Vineland, N. J.; Devil's Lake, Williston, N. D.; Spartansburg, S. C.; Watertown, S. D.; Lebanon, Tenn.; Ashland and Ladysmith, Wis. The following cities have recently rejected the plan: West Orange, N. J.; Taylor, Texas; Princeton, Champaign and Joliet, Ill.

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General Laws.—*Indiana Business Plan.* What is termed the "business system of city government" is now before the Indiana legislature. The plan was drafted by a committeee of lawyers, educationalists and business men representing the Federated Commercial Clubs of the state. It was first suggested at a convention of this organization held in October, 1911. In effect the plan is a combination of the old form of municipal government and the commission system. It provides for a board of councilors elected by the people, varying in number from nine to twenty-five according to the class of the city; cities of the first, or largest class, will of course have the biggest board. This board selects and appoints a mayor and four commissioners, and these five men constitute the board of administration which is the operating branch of the government, and also the legislative body and passes all ordinances, subject to the approval of the council. All offices of a subordinate nature are created and filled by the board of administration, and it fixes the salaries for these offices.

The board of administration is subdivided into five coördinate departments —public affairs; revenue and finance; public safety; streets; public property and improvement; health and sanitation. The mayor is ex-officio head of the department of public affairs, and the board of councilors designates each of the other four commissioners to one of the remaining departments.

The councilors are nominated by petition, and elected every two years. The ballots used are free from any emblem, device or other indication of a political party.

The people have the power of recall over the councilors, and they exercise the same power over the members of the board of administration. The referendum is compulsory on all matters involving franchises or public grants, and the people may initiate ordinances that the government fails or refuses to pass.

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[1] These notes were prepared in February and the legislation in many cases has been materially advanced since that date and will be taken up in the July notes.—Editor.

A third-class-cities commission government bill passed the senate on January 31, applies to cities of from 19,050 to 35,000 inhabitants, which would include Anderson, Elkhart, East Chicago, Hammond, Lafayette, Logansport, Marion, Muncie, Richmond and New Albany.

Kansas.—A bill favored by the Kansas municipal league, providing that candidates for city commissioner in cities that have adopted the city commission form of government shall declare for what particular places on the board of commissioners they are candidates for, has been recommended for passage in the house. A similar measure has been introduced in the senate.

Pennsylvania. Senator Henry A. Clark of Erie introduced on January 21 a bill which would give the privilege of adopting the commission form to cities of the third class. This measure retains the principal features of the one of similar import before the legislature in 1911 with the exception of the recall and the provisions which would legislate the present incumbents out of office. The bill has the backing of the Allied Civic Bodies of the third class cities. A second bill for third class cities introduced by Dr. Thomas A. Steel of McKeesport would establish a council of eleven members.

Ohio. Late in January the Municipal Association of Cleveland published a proposed bill providing three optional forms of organization which any city might adopt by referendum vote, including the federal plan, a commission plan and a city manager plan. This document was approved by a conference of the Ohio Municipal League on January 23.[1]

Minnesota. Representative Kerry Conley of Rochester has introduced a bill to permit cities to adopt the city manager plan.

Missouri. A general bill which will, in fact, permit the cities of Joplin and Springfield to adopt the commission form has been introduced in the legislature and appears to excite no opposition.

New Mexico. Senator Barth's bill authorizes cities of 5000 or more inhabitants to initiate a local charter by popular election of a board of three freeholders, instituted on petition of voters equal in number to 25 per cent of the votes cast at the last preceding municipal election. The charter submitted by this body must be ratified by popular vote. This is an attempt to secure home rule by statute.

New York. The Municipal Government Association plans to introduce four bills in the legislature covering practically the whole field of fundamental municipal reform. One of these is a constitutional home rule amendment; a second is a non-partisan municipal elections act; third a municipal empowering act. The fourth would permit any city of the second or third classes to adopt any one of six simplified forms of organization.

North Dakota. By the provisions of a bill relating to elections upon the question of commission form of government, several cities which rejected the commission form in the past will have an opportunity to resubmit the question this spring.

Tennessee. A meeting of the mayors of Tennessee was held at Nashville on January 28 to draft a bill permitting all cities and towns to adopt the commission form of government. A bill of this character has been introduced in the legislature.

Texas. The general law allowing cities of under 10,000 population to adopt commission government is one of the most poorly drafted pieces of legislation imaginable. A bill passed in the Senate aims to clarify this law by giving the cities definite powers as to police regulations, taxation, bonds, etc. and extends its provisions to all cities of over 2000 population.

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[1] Copies can be had of the Association, Engineers Building, Cleveland, O.

Utah. Alleged dissatisfaction with the result of commission government in Ogden has inspired Senator Craig of that city to introduce a bill which would practically repeal the present commission government law, and substitute a system under which there would be a mayor with veto power popularly elected and a council elected from wards. Another bill introduced in the lower house by Representative Barnes of Salt Lake City provides for the recall of city officials, submission of all franchises to the people, the appointment of a civil service commission and an election commission. The bill would also increase the number of councilors to seventeen in cities of the first class, eleven in the second and nine in the third class, to be elected at large, in rotation. The mayor would be elected by this board. The adoption of the law would be optional with the cities.

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Special Charters.—Besides the local movements specially mentioned below, active efforts to secure either special charters on the commission plan or charter amendments to that purpose have been begun in behalf of the following cities.

Douglas and Bisbee, Ariz.; San Diego, Cal., election February 27 fixing recall petitions at 25 per cent, making auditor and superintendent of streets charter officers), Meriden, Stratford and Middletown, Conn; Pensacola, Fla. (commission and semi-aldermanic forms submitted to popular vote February 25); St. Petersburg, Fla. (form of charter under discussion during February); Atlanta, Ga. (charter committee at work); Honolulu, H. T. (Governor Frear and others discussing commission and city manager plans); Chicago, Ill. (resolution passed by council provided for a committee of three to interview the mayor as to the feasibility of a charter convention); Auburn, Me. (Progressives published form of commission government charter); Baltimore, Md. (City-wide Congress on January 3 accepted a report of its committee on municipal government recommending a charter which would provide for the short ballot, initiative and referendum and division of organic law into charter and code); Quincy, Somerville, Pittsfield, Lynn, Lowell, Cambridge, Worcester, Beverly, Brockton, Malden, Newburyport and Lawrence, Mass.; Saginaw, Mich. (charter reported by commission during January); Owosso, Mich. (charter commission asked to prepare charter with city manager plan); Battle Creek and Kalamazoo, Mich. (charters ready for submission); Nashua, N. H. (one of two forms of new proposed charter provides commission plan); Charlotte, N. C. (charter sent to legislature vests powers of city in mayor and two commissioners, subject to recall) Raleigh and Asheville, N. C. (legislature asked to pass commission government bills); Norman, Okla. (freeholder charter reported in January) Charleston, S. C. (commission government bill has been introduced in legislature); Fairmount, Clarksburg, Grafton, Sistersville, Piedmont, Cameron, St. Albans and Wheeling, W. Va. (commercial bodies are supporting commission government charters in the legislature); Kenosha Wis. (petitions for adoption of state law circulated during February).

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The Ohio Movements.—The constistitutional home rule amendment adopted is bearing abundant fruit. On February 4 elections were held in Cleveland, Youngstown and Coshocton on the question of calling local charter conventions and electing the requisite fifteen charter commissioners. In Coshocton only about a third of the vote was cast, and the proposition was defeated. In Cleveland the ticket nominated by Mayor Baker and including himself and

Prof. A. R. Hatton, was elected. This ticket is pledged to non-partisan elections, the short ballot, the merit system and the initiative and referendum.

In Dayton a number of commercial and civic bodies have been studying the several new types of city government. The city manager plan has in this city an unusual number of adherents. The Socialists have drafted a general plan calling for the election of a council from wards, a mayor and president of the council.

Charter elections have been called as follows: Akron, April 1; Salem, April 18; Marietta, April 22, Toledo, April 26; Middletown, May 6. Petitions for such action have been presented to the city councils in Springfield. In Columbus the question of a charter convention is unofficially but actively discussed.

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The Denver Election.—On February 14 the city of Denver voted on four propositions; (1) for a charter convention to provide a commission form of government, (2) a popular initiative amendment providing a specific form of commission government, (3) preferential voting amendment, (4) an ordinance regulating telephone charges. All but the first of these propositions carried.

The adoption of the initiated commission form will have a unique and far reaching effect in that it will bring county as well as city departments under a single governing board. The traditional five members, an auditor and an election commissioner will be the only elective officers; the mayor will be selected by the commissioners from their own number. The commissioner of property, in addition to his municipal duties, will be county clerk and recorder of deeds. The commissioner of finance will perform the duties of county treasurer and assessor. The commissioner of safety will be sheriff as well as head of the police department. The commissioner of improvements will supersede the county surveyor. And the commissioner of social welfare will perform the duties of county superintendent of schools and coroner. There will be no independent civil service commission.

The terms of the commissioners will expire in rotation, so that after 1915 not more than five city and county officers will be elected at any one time. If the recommendations of the governor and the retiring governor are followed, the short ballot principle will be applied to the state ticket, and Denver citizens, in place of what Judge Lindsay called "The Jungle" will have a ballot which for "shortness" can hardly be surpassed.

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The Los Angeles Charter.—The adverse vote on the Los Angeles charter on December 3, 1912, is explained by the secretary of the charter commission chiefly on the grounds of insufficient publicity. The vote, especially of the women was unusually light. Apparently the Socialists voted with the "special interests" to defeat the new law. Immediately after the election the People's Charter Conference was organized with a view to getting amendments before the people in time for approval by the legislature. The conference has reported eight separate amendments, which purport to give the city increased power in the purchase and regulation of public utilities and the power of excess condemnation, when it shall be provided for by state law. The nine members of the council would each be designated, respectively, a committee of one to look after a division of the city's affairs. One amendment provides for a form of proportional representation in the council.

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Philadelphia Suggestions.—Suggestions of fundamental changes in the composition of the city council of Philadelphia have been proposed by the Committee of Seventy and Clinton Rogers Woodruff. Both of these proposals would do away with the present bi-cameral system and substitute a council of fifteen members elected at large. The Committee of Seventy calls attention to the great inequalities of representation which are inherent in the ward system and offers as a substitute a method of proportional representation by means of the single untransferable vote. Mr. Woodruff would incorporate the initiative, referendum and recall in the city charter as a method of controlling the council. Mayor Blankenburgh has put himself on record as favoring a council of fifteen members.

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The Portland Situation.—Compromises have been effected in Portland between the opponents of the official commission government charter and the mayor by which the question will be resubmitted to the people May 3. The mayor conceded a number of amendments which were incorporated in the charter drafted by W. C. Benbow. The "short charter" mentioned in the last issue of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW was disapproved by both parties to the compromise.[1]

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Massachusetts Activity.—Representative Keenan of Lynn has introduced a bill by which that city would abandon commission government and return to the system of the mayor and eleven aldermen. Considerable dissatisfaction is expressed with the workings of the town meeting feature of the Lynn charter, but aside from this the instrument does not appear to be seriously defective.

An amendment to the city charter of Haverhill is being sought to eliminate the "bullet" voting that has prevailed since the change was made from a bicameral system to a commission form in 1908. Under the present system there are four candidates for the two aldermanic positions at the city elections and it has been possible for friends of a candidate to vote for him alone by casting a bullet vote, where they are allowed to vote for two or four candidates.

Two charters for Cambridge have been brought forward. The one prepared by Prof. L. J. Johnson of Harvard has again been introduced in the legislature. Another prepared by Representative Mahoney substitutes for the present council a single chamber of seventeen elected one from each ward and six at large. The administrative boards would be appointive by the Mayor.

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Miscellaneous.—*Michigan:* The grand jury of Wayne County in January after bringing a number of indictments, severely criticized the common council and the school board of Detroit and recommended adoption of commission government, believing that it would attract a higher grade of men to the public service. *Oklahoma.* Charging that the commission form of government in Ardmore is undemocratic; that it is too expensive; that the city has gone into debt under the system, petitions are being circulated to abolish it and go back to the aldermanic form. *Arizona.* A commission government charter adopted in 1912 by Phoenix has been found to conflict with the constitution in a number of details, especially those relating to the initiative, referendum and recall. Governor Hunt has pointed out that there is no relief except in retracing the entire process of the charter convention. *Oregon.* A commission government charter adopted in Klamath Falls, on May 21, 1912, is in a state of litigation growing out of the apparent adoption of another charter of legislative origin, in February of the same year, and a confusion of elections.

H. S. GILBERTSON.[1]

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Duluth, Minn.—Having voted last December to adopt the commission form of government, it was proposed to the old city council that an expert should be employed so that when the new government goes into effect in April, he might have ready diagrams for the organization of departments and for disposing of powers and duties on an efficiency bases.

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[1] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. ii, p. 118.

[1] Assistant secretary of The National Short Ballot Organization.

The council shied at the word expert. The argument was used that "we had a perfectly good system of municipal accounting already and that it would not be fair to the new commission to tie their hands by a system prepared without consulting them. But the real reason was that we are tired of hearing about experts and by jinks we can do just as good a job of experting by our own common sense as any of these fellows with superhuman wisdom."

John S. Pardee.

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New Municipal Program Committee.—Ten years ago the National Municipal League adopted a municipal program on the recommendation of a committee of seven men who gave to the whole matter careful and thoughtful consideration during a period of upwards of two years. Since its adoption it has been a source of widespread influence, but the League has thought it desirable to have the recommendations of the report reëxamined, and to that end a new committee has been authorized consisting of five members of the old committee and an equal number of new. The members of the former committee who will serve are: Horace E. Deming, Esq., New York City, author of *Government of American Cities*; Prof. Frank J. Goodnow, of Columbia University, and for a time a member of the President's commission on economy and efficiency; Hon. George W. Guthrie, former mayor of Pittsburgh, and now chairman of the Democratic state committee of Pennsylvania; Prof. L. S. Rowe, of the University of Pennsylvania; and Clinton Rogers Woodruff, secretary of the League and chairman of the board of registration commissioners of Philadelphia. The new men are: Richard S. Childs, secretary of The Short Ballot Organization; Prof. John A. Fairlie, of the University of Illinois, and author of several volumes dealing with municipal problems; M. N. Baker, editor of *Engineering News* and president of the Montclair board of health; Arthur C. Ludington, New York City; and the Hon. William Dudley Foulke, Richmond, Ind., president of the League, as chairman. This committee, which has been just completed, will shortly be at work on its assignment.

II. FUNCTIONS

Philadelphia's High-Cost-of-Living Program.—Can Philadelphia affect the cost of living?

Granting that many of the factors in the high cost of living are national or international, are some of them sufficiently local to be controlled by purposeful civic action on the part of the city?

Mayor Blankenburg is keenly interested in doing all he can to lower the cost of living, especially to the small householders and wage earners in Philadelphia. Accordingly he asked Morris L. Cooke, director of public works, to supervise the investigations necessary to determine whether or not anything could profitably be done by the city, and if so, what steps had best be taken.

The director, one of the few men trained as efficiency engineers, to be appointed to important governmental positions, decided that the proper method of approaching the problem was to take a typical sample of each class of goods, on which the average householder spent a considerable portion of his income, and follow that sample from the earliest stage in its production until it finally reached the Philadelphian's table. To the author of this paper was given the task particularly of following the third of these costs—that of getting goods from the producer to the consumer.

Moreover, the goods under consideration were limited to farm produce grown in the counties surrounding Philadelphia.

The first step in the investigation was to find out just what was the increase in consumers' prices over producers' prices. From numerous and diverse sources were gathered the prices received by the farmer, by the jobber, by the wholesaler and by the retailer. These prices revealed that the increase of consumers' prices over producers' prices range from 73 to 105 per cent for butter; from 106 to 154 per cent for potatoes; from 67 to 173 per cent for eggs; from 114 to 166 per cent for huckleberries; from 150 to 200 per cent for blackberries; 266 per cent for live poultry; 167 per cent for corn, and 150 per cent for tomatoes. The percentage of increase in price due to transportation from the farm to the city ranged from 1 to 25 per cent of the price received by the farmer; the percentage of increase due to the jobber ranged from 6 to 36 per cent; the percentage of increase due to the wholesaler ranged from 11 to 22 per cent; while the percentage of increase of retailers' prices over wholesalers' prices ranged from 30 to 100 per cent. This last increase includes the high cost of distribution later to be discussed. By jobber is meant the country store-keeper or the huckster or traveling agent who buys direct from the farmer.

Products are brought from the farm to the city by water, wagon, steam rail, motor truck, and trolley freight. In each of these there is ample opportunity through proper governmental action for definitely increasing the efficiency of transportation and for lowering transportation costs.

Water transportation can be improved through the use of the motor boat. For the development of such transportation, Philadelphia's location is especially fortunate. The development of transportation by wagon will best be increased through improving inter-county roads. Related to the possibilities of this development will be the possibilities of sending farmers' produce into the city by parcels post. The rates under the new law will be five cents for the first pound, within a radius of fifty miles, with a charge of one cent additional per pound until a maximum weight of eleven pounds is reached.[1] Farmers in the vicinity might ship some produce to Philadelphia consumers at these rates, but its greater use will be in getting the city's output directly to the farm. The efficiency in transportation by steam rail can be increased, if not by lowering the rates, certainly through better and quicker service. Transportation by motor trucks is in its infancy, and has most significant possibilities. Five trucks of one and one-half tons each can do the work of twenty horses, and still double the radius of action. With better inter-county roads, and with a well developed farming country, this method of transportation will no doubt play a large part in getting goods most economically and directly from the farmer to the city consumer.

It is in the development of trolley freight, however, that there are the greatest possibilities. Its extensive development would mean transportation facilities from every section of the city to each outlying hamlet, and would make it possible to bring it direct to the several parts of the city, country produce from the farms within a radius of thirty to fifty or more miles in every direction from the city. Such a development would in effect add about one thousand square miles to the territory upon which Philadelphia could depend for its country produce.

Along several of the trolley lines, the trolley freight service is in a fairly satisfactory condition. Along many others, however, such service is both inadequate and unsatisfactory. This unsatisfactory condition is due in the main to three reasons: (a) the difference in gauge or in wheel specifications so that through freight cars cannot be run into the city; (b) want of proper traffic agreements; (c) want of interest in certain of the outlying trolley lines in the development of trolley freight.

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[1] That is, these are the charges for the first 50 miles, the distance in which Philadelphia is especially interested. The law further provides that the rates will increase through eight zones, varying from 50 to 1800 or more miles, the charge for the first pound for the greatest distance being twelve cents.—C. L. K.

About the same situation now exists with certain trolley lines that existed in the decade or two preceding the Civil War with certain railroad lines; that is, they have been built on a different gauge or with different wheel specifications. The result is that freight must be transferred from car to car. This leads to loss in time and damage to freight, both of which are most objectionable to the shipper and cause added costs to the consumer. This condition can be remedied on some lines, a few lines contemplate changes in gauge, but with a couple of lines the only solution at present seems to be to provide for a quick, inexpensive and careful transfer.

Trolley freight is blocked on other outlying lines because of the want of proper traffic agreements, either between two or more of the outlying companies, or between one or more of these companies and the Philadelphia Rapid Transit Company. However, the Philadelphia Rapid Transit Company is deeply interested in developing its freight traffic and has not, therefore, been a leading obstacle in the making of reasonable traffic agreements.

Often the leading reason for the want of proper traffic agreements is the desire of certain of the lines to pay good dividends on highly watered stock. This situation thus far has led, in all too many instances, to unreasonable rates and poor service. The situation points to the need of a state public service commission with plenary powers over capitalization, service and rates. Philadelphia consumers and the outlying farmers would then have a tribunal which could give them facts upon which to base a sane policy, and before which they could go to demand reasonable service and rates.

A third reason for the unsatisfactory condition of the trolley freight service lies in the want of interest in trolley freight by certain of the outlying electric companies. It is only in recent years that trolley lines have seen the value or have been allowed to develop the possibilities of trolley freight. Too often this development has been held up by restrictive legislation fathered by other transportation concerns, or by local jealousies and inter-town controversies.

However, most of the lines centering in the city are now willing to develop through freight service. The few that are not can be reached after such freight has proved to be a paying investment on other lines.

There are significant possibilities also in the development of trolley freight over the lines in New Jersey, Delaware and Maryland.

Another reducible cost in getting farm produce into the city is due to an antequated system of taxation. The state's mercantile tax, which ranges from $2.50 to $11 per year for farmers selling produce other than their own, and the city's vendor's license fee, which amounts to $10 for one horse, or $15 for two horses, do not have to be paid by farmers who bring into the city and sell their own produce. This provision was adequate at the time the law was passed, about 1840, for then the farmers who lived more than a day's drive from the city had little motive to bring their produce to Philadelphia. Today, however, the most valuable fruit and produce growing sections are within thirty to sixty miles from the city. It is unprofitable for any farmer living out that far to drive to the city in order to sell his own produce solely. The result of these taxes and licenses, therefore, is to compel the farmer to sell his produce to some one else, and thus make necessary the increase in prices due both to the jobber and the wholesaler. If these statutes and ordinances could be so amended as to allow any farmer or gardener cultivating his own farm or garden to secure a permit, after inspection by a city official, at a cost of not more than 50 cents, and to sell without added fees or taxes not only his own produce but the produce of any farmer with a like permit, the cost of farm produce would be greatly reduced.

Another cumulative element in the cost of farm produce is the city's inefficient and outgrown distribution system. The reports on prices received from each of the wards of the city indicate very clearly the relations between the distance from freight terminals and the prices paid by consumers. The wards paying high prices had long hauls; the wards reporting medium high prices had medium long hauls; the wards with medium low prices had medium short hauls; and the wards reporting low prices had short hauls. There is here a definite social waste. This waste is increased by the fact that there is a double haul in many instances. Thus farmers from beyond the 41st ward drive over ten miles, through the 41st ward, to Dock Street and Vine Street commission merchants; the goods are purchased here by a retailer who carts them back again to the 41st ward—a useless twenty-mile haul. In all sections of the city there is a double cartage of this character. The result is an unnecessary and very large increase in the cost of consumers' prices. Moreover, the transportation methods used are often costly and largely antedated. To a large extent transportation is still carried on by horse-drawn vehicles at a cost of 25 to 50 cents per ton mile. Motor trucks for distribution are as yet not so extensively used as in other cities, say New York, where there are over 2000 such motor trucks in use.

A distribution system that would best conserve the interests of the farmers in the outlying counties, whether they vend on the streets, or sell to the wholesaler or retailer, that would best conserve the interests of the retailers in every section of the city, who care to buy direct from farmers, that would best further the interests of the consumers, is the development of trolley terminals. There are in the city at the present time but three trolley freight terminals. The development of such terminals would also make it possible for manufacturers and stores in each section of the city to send goods to the outlying stores and consumers without the added cartage costs that now have to be paid, would increase the number of farmers that come to the city, and increase the type of business now characteristic of the Washington Hotel. About sixty-five farmers, from twenty-two agricultural districts, ship their produce to the 11th and Huntingdon Street station, then remain over night at this hotel, and the next day hire teams from the proprietor and vend their goods on routes in the city. With adequate terminal facilities, the farmers could sell not only in this way but at the markets or to the retailers directly. This would eliminate the costs due to at least two classes of middlemen. Such a distributing system would also prevent great waste due to the decay of perishable products and fruit. At the present time such goods are often two or three days in transit from the farmer to the retailer or the consumer. This waste could be very definitely decreased through a more facile distributing system.

Another unnecessary element in the cost of farm produce is the existence of certain abuses which undermine the faith of the farmer in Philadelphia markets, and the faith of the consumer both in farmers' markets and in the goods bought from retail stores. Many of these abuses can be eliminated through proper ordinances and statutes. Thus an ordinance could be passed forbidding the use of farmers' signs by those not bona fide farmers. This abuse today is outrageously common in certain of the city's markets. Ordinances could also most stringently regulate the existing markets. The city could create a bureau of weights and measures, and thus protect both the farmer and the consumer. It could use its influence to get a statute compelling wholesalers to file bonds with a designated state official, conditioned upon performing their services faithfully, and upon the reporting of goods in the condition in which they are actually received, and the payment to farmers of the money properly due them. There are at present all too many abuses along these lines. A state statute could provide that cold storage eggs should be clearly marked as such. Such a statute would protect the consumer and would, in all probability, have the same effect as the oleomargarine statute—the development of the cold storage business, and the protection of the honest dealer.

Another step that the city could take to reduce costs on farm produce is to establish a wholesale market and retail markets in those sections of the city where retail markets may prove to be needed.

In the city are two dozen markets, two of which are municipally owned. None of these is now administered primarily with the thought of bringing consumer and producer together. Most of them are no longer markets in the old sense of the word, but are simply groups of professional retailers. The establishment of a wholesale market or a farmers' market, coupled with thorough regulation of existing markets, would no doubt have a wholesome effect on consumers' prices. In several cities of the United States, such markets have not only lowered prices, but have been of financial profit to the city. The New York market commission urges that a terminal, wholesale market for New York City will relieve congestion in several parts of the city, provide a conspicuous place for producers to send to, provide an economic stand so that they can sell cheaper, make it possible for licensed gardeners and farmers to sell their articles of food, permit segregation of live poultry, provide better refrigeration and storage facilities, reduce the cost of distribution, provide sanitary conditions for handling food stuffs, provide for a storage of food in time of plenty, eliminate two classes of middlemen between producer and consumer, and put the control of the food supply under public authority. Such a wholesale house, coupled with the transportation and distribution system outlined above, would, no doubt, be of great value in making for a better and greater Philadelphia, and for lowering food costs to every consumer therein.

To the author's mind, far more important than the establishment of municipal markets, is the establishment of the transportation facilities into and out of the city, as described above, the development of distributing facilities and trolley freight terminals within the city, and the stringent regulation of municipal markets, weights and measures, and commission men.

The carrying out of these proposals will definitely affect consumers' prices. The development of a network of a facile, accessible transportation and distributing system, coupled with the measures indicated above, will encourage the farmer to come into the city; will make it possible for the farmer to go around one or two sets of middlemen; will save cartage costs to the farmer, and, therefore, to the consumer; will save time to the farmer, and, therefore, increase his output; will give better prices to the farmer, and, therefore, encourage him to grow fruits and produce especially needed in Philadelphia; will focus his attention upon produce and fruit rather than upon the staple products that can better be grown in Kansas and Nebraska; will fasten his attention to packing and sorting, and thus save food waste through decay; will shorten the time from the farm to the city table, and thus give fresher goods with a decreased loss through deterioration; will extend the bounds of economic possibilities in each agricultural district; will enhance the facilities through which the outlying stores and smaller towns can more economically handle their freight both from and into Philadelphia; will give to the retail stores a lessened transportagion charge; will give to Philadelphia's manufacturing establishments and stores increased facilities for sale; will make possible the elimination of one or two classes of middlemen, without any serious injury to their business; will give to Philadelphia consumers fresher produce, and will materially lower prices.

Philadelphia *can* lower the cost of living to her citizens.

Clyde L. King.

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Municipal Utilities. *The National Civic Federation* department in charge of the inquiry into the regulation of public utilities is nearing the end of its work. One of the achievements is the compilation of all existing regulatory laws, analyzed and annotated. This is a task of extreme value and convenience to every person at all interested in the regulation of public service corporations.

The department has also drawn up a model public utilities law, has made special reports on the regulation of capitalization, the sliding scale method, and profit sharing, and has made a careful study of state versus municipal regulation. The sliding scale principle was a subject of special inquiry in England. Particular attention was also given in the English investigation to methods employed in the regulation of capital issues and in the public audit of companies. The plan of selling stock at auction was also examined in detail. The report of the English investigation will constitute a valuable addition to the literature on the subject.

Court decisions have been examined and compiled. A careful line was drawn between decisions which involved merely the application of the statutes and decisions which interpreted the language of the statutes.

The inquiry is in charge of Prof. John H. Gray. For the consideration of the various parts of the proposed model bill, the activities of the department were divided among the following committees: Accounts and reports, capitalization, form, franchises, rates, safety of operation, service.

The Geary Street Municipal Railway of San Francisco, was opened for business on December 28, 1912. The road at present has 5½ miles of track, built at a cost of $139,000 a mile. $1,900,000 was voted in bonds for building the road from Kearny Street to the Ocean. The bonds were sold for $1,902,341.50, of which $842,376.26 still remains in the treasury. Of this sum about $400,000 will be called for in order to complete the extension to the beach and meet the outstanding contracts.

The contest for the municipal operation of the Geary Street road began as far back as 1896 when the corporation then in control of the cable road on Geary Street attempted to secure a fifty-year franchise seven years before their existing franchise expired. This was defeated through legal proceedings and much agitation, as were other subsequent attempts. Several efforts to secure a bond issue for the reconstruction of the cable road as a municipally owned electric line proved unsuccessful, as, in the three attempts made, a majority vote, but not the requisite two-thirds vote, was secured. Finally, in December, 1909, the proposition carried by a vote of three to one.

The new road is but the beginning of a municipal system. Plans are underway to connect the Geary Street road with the Union Street road by two cross town lines. These cross town lines will furnish the necessary transportation to the grounds of the Panama Pacific International Exposition. It is expected that they will be completed sometime next year.

New York Electrical Rates. William D. Marks, consulting engineer of New York City, has issued a special report on the electricity rates of New York City. He claims that the rates for small consumers are inconsistently too large. His report gives tables and other data comparing a service scale of rates with a commodity scale of rates. He feels that the commodity scale of rates is not fair even when figured out carefully, but if used, may be consistently applied under the assumption that increased sales require an increased plant. His statistics and diagrams reveal the fact that under the New York Edison Company's monthly power rates, all consumers using more than about 25 kw. hours per month are charged inconsistently high rates. They also reveal the fact that from 100,000 to 200,000 kw. hours, the rate is inconsistently high, and that it is consistently fixed only when 200,000 kw. hours is reached, and after that runs below a consistent profit until at 833,333 kw. hours commodity cost is reached at 3 cents per kw. hour. He contends that there is no consistent or rational or practical method underlying the random quantitative rates approved by New York City's public service commission, and that those rates rob the great multitude of small consumers and secure no profits from the large consumers.

In 1910, the New York Edison Company's profits were $7,366,864.39. In the writer's opinion, a fair profit would not have exceeded $4,800,000. He feels that the public service commission should establish rational and practical rates, giving citizens of New York the benefit of the difference of $2,500,000 and preventing future extortion. He also holds that the commission should have adhered to a tested and practically fair system until some equally rational and simpler system than the "discarded" public service rate giving even profits to the producer was presented.

San Francisco in June of last year established by ordinance rates for water, gas and electricity. The water rates were based upon the ground surface for buildings occupied by a single family, with special regulations as to flats and houses occupied by two or more families. There are also special rates for bath tubs, horses, cows, boarding and lodging houses, irrigation, private gardens, building purposes, business houses, fire pipes, etc. All other water is to be furnished at meter rates. Another ordinance fixed the maximum rate and price to be charged for illuminating power of gas at 75 cents per 1000 cubic feet, with 8 cents per lamp per night for incandescent gas lamps. The maximum rate and price to be charged by any person, company or corporation for furnishing electricity for heat and power purposes to the city and county of San Francisco were also fixed.

Chicago Telephone Rates. A detailed, exhaustive report has been submitted by Prof. Edward W. Bemis, to the committee on gas, oil and electric light of the Chicago council, upon the earnings, expenses, valuation and rates of the Chicago Telephone Company. This is the third report to be made on telephone rates and service in large cities. The first was made in 1909–10 by the Massachusetts highways commission for Boston and its suburbs; the second for Maryland in 1911 by the Maryland public service commission. The Wisconsin railroad commission and the New Jersey public utilities commission have made several investigations of telephone rates in smaller places, but these have little bearing on conditions in large cities.

Professor Bemis's report, therefore, has special significance. He finds that a reasonable valuation of the physical property of the company within the city of Chicago alone is $32,259,947, while for city and suburban property it is $42,290,562. The average plant investment, including land but not the working capital of all Bell companies, was, in 1911, $638,830,314. As a result of his studies in valuation, depreciation, operating and maintenance expenses and dividends, he concludes that the company should make a reduction of $700,000 annually in its charges within the city. He shows that this can be done and still reduce the dividends paid by the company only from 8 to 7.1 per cent.

One of the most interesting facts brought out in the report is that maintenance costs have not increased in the same proportion as operating costs. There is a universal belief that the greater the number of telephones, the higher the maintenance charge. From 1891 to 1893 inclusive, the ratio of maintenance and reconstruction to average investments was 9.38; for the three years 1910 to 1912, inclusive, it was 7.39. For the five year period from 1891 to 1895, inclusive, the ratio was 9.78; for the five year period, ending with and including 1912, it was 7.77. Prolonging the trend line to 1917, the ratio would be 7.2 in 1917 as compared with 7.5 in 1912, or an average of 7.35 for the coming five years.

The author recommends a city telephone bureau to receive all complaints from customers and take them up promptly with the company. The company would then be spurred on by public approval to improve its services.

The reason for the issuance of the report was that under the franchise of 1907, Chicago's council has the right to fix new telephone rates every five years. The first city ordinance fixing telephone rates in a city of any size was the Chicago ordinance of 1907.

Memphis, following a disagreement as to rates and franchise privileges with the local public utility companies, is considering a plan to vote the requisite amount of municipal bonds to establish a heating and lighting plant owned by the city.

Local vs. State Regulation of Municipal Utilities. Governor Deneen of Illinois in his annual message for 1913 recommends the creation of two public utilities commissions for the state of Illinois and the city of Chicago, respectively. His reasons for feeling that the greatest advantage to the people would accrue from the creation of two commissions are, first, that home rule as a principle should be "conserved as far as possible in all governmental activities," and second, that "the public utilities problems of Chicago are so great and so complex as to require the entire attention of such a body of experts." He feels that the efficiency of the state commission would be impaired by any other limitation of their authority by city lines. In this same connection it is interesting to note that at a recent meeting of the League of Washington Municipalities, a fight was started by representatives of Seattle and Spokane upon the public utilities commission of the state because of its tendency to hamper the local governments in dealing with local problems.

Street Control in Canada. At the request of Toronto, the Union of Canadian Municipalities appointed a delegation to appear before Premier Borden, to ask the government for remedial legislation in the matter of the control of streets and roads by the municipalities. The different members of the committee advanced evidence to show that many municipalities had suffered from the want of this legislation, and urged that the adopted statute should cover any and every company, including those already incorporated. The delegation agreed with the proposition that, failing to receive the consent of the municipality, the board of railway commissioners of Canada should have jurisdiction. Mr. Borden assured the Committee that the matter would receive the early consideration of the Cabinet.

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Local vs. State Regulation of Municipal Utilities.—At the recent meeting of the officials of the commission governed cities in Illinois, resolutions were adopted opposing the granting of power to any state board, commission, or officer, to control or regulate the operation or rates or services of any public utility except upon the invitation of the local authorities. The sentiment throughout Illinois in other than official ranks seems to be equally strong in the same direction.

Eighty Cent Gas in Philadelphia.—In his campaign for election, Rudolph Blankenburg, Mayor of Philadelphia, pledged himself to obtain 80-cent gas. In his New Year's letter of January 1, 1913, the mayor, in reviewing the accomplishments of the first year under his administration, pointed out the great economies and savings that had been made and stated:

> I at last feel able to redeem my pledge, made during the mayoralty campaign, to ask of councils a reduction of the price of gas from one dollar per thousand cubic feet to eighty cents per thousand cubic feet. . . This desirable reduction in the price of gas has been made possible by practical and rational economies instituted in all departments, without affecting their efficiency.

In the same letter, however, he pointed out the necessity for increased resources for making improvements in streets, highways, sewers, etc., that were essential to the city's welfare. These, he pointed out, would require an increased income of about eight and one-half million per year. He made at this and other times, definite recommendations as to how the city's income could be increased. The city also needs from sixty to eighty million dollars to carry out necessary improvements in wharves, docks, subways, boulevards, civic centers and other municipal improvements.

Soon after the New Year recommendation was made, councils passed an ordinance providing for 80-cent gas, beginning January 1, 1913, but failed to take any steps toward increasing the city's resources. The mayor, therefore, felt it necessary to veto the bill and thus continue dollar gas until after other avenues for municipal resources have been obtained. He has thus far been opposed to increasing the rates on real estate, but is looking about for new sources of revenue.

The contract with the United Gas Improvement Company, approved in December, 1907, leasing the city's gas works to that company until December 31, 1927, provided that the price of gas should be $1 per 1000 cubic feet, and that councils could, by ordinance, reduce the price of gas to any point not below the following: until December 31, 1907, 90 cents; from 1908 to 1912, inclusive, 85 cents; from 1913 to 1917, inclusive, 80 cents; from 1918 to 1927, inclusive, 75 cents. The price thus far has been kept up to $1, and the difference between that price and the prices above noted has, in accordance with the lease, gone into the city treasury. The returns therefrom for 1913 were estimated at $1,750,000.

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Cost of Gas. One of the fundamental questions in all communities where the price of illuminating gas is under consideration is the relative proportion of cost for each of the items in its manufacture and distribution. In a city whose consumption approached 100,000,000 feet of gas a year, the different cost items in the operation of the gas plant were as follows: For manufacturing gas and placing it in the holder, 31½ cents per 1000; for distributing it from the holder to the consumer's meter, 20 cents; for management and general operating expenses, 33 cents; to afford a return of around 6 percent on the value of the property, 30 cents. This does not include profit to the owners, and includes depreciation only in so far as depreciation was included in the amounts expended during the current year for repairs.

These relative costs would vary in different localities. In the above figures coal was taken at $3.20 per 2000 pounds. There was a good market for coke and power at fair, but not extreme, prices. Thus these figures represent fairly well the relative costs of the different items which have to be considered in supplying gas to consumers under these conditions.

Clyde L. King.[1]

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Frank Putnam's Report to the City of Houston, Texas.—In the recent report of Frank Putnam, special commissioner of the city of Houston, Texas, to examine the administration of European cities there is much that is of interest both as regards the findings and as regards the recommendations he bases on these findings.

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[1] Of the University of Pennsylvania and editor *The Regulation of Municipal Utilities* in the National Municipal League Series.

One fact that makes Mr. Putnam's report of general interest is that it is the result of investigations, hurried and superficial as they necessarily were through lack of time for the accomplishment of the desired purpose, not by a technically trained student of city government but by a trained observer who has the newspaper man's insight and oversight enabling him to grasp almost at a glance the salient objective facts. Hence instead of indulging in theoretical discussions about the legal relations between the government and the people, the relation of the various organs of government to each other, or the method of state control, Mr. Putnam's chief interest lay in seeing just what the European cities he visited were actually doing in the business of local government and what suggestions could be obtained from their manner of doing business for our own city governments, especially of course for the city of Houston whose commissioner he was.

Mr. Putnam visited in the six months he was engaged in the task, two cities in Ireland, two in England, Paris, and a number of large cities in Germany. His general findings, condensed in his report from the weekly letters sent by him to Texas newspapers, were in brief as follows:

He found that municipal taxes were from 25 to 100 per cent higher in those cities than in Houston. He found the ordinary public services such as water supply, paving and drainage in admirable condition and a very general ownership of tramways, electric light and gas plants, with a marked tendency to increase the public ownership of these ordinary public utilities as well as of such municipal undertakings as markets, housing, play-grounds, baths, etc. This is especially noticeable in Germany where the municipal savings banks are an important feature of public activity, as well as employment bureaus and the abolition of slums.

The continuity and relatively long terms of the city officers, especially of the trained professional officials, was a striking feature to Mr. Putnam and particularly the methods of getting mayors and other professional offiicials for the German cities. Of special interest to the city of Houston were Mr. Putnam's findings with regard to the undertakings of European cities, in the building and maintenance of great harbors, for Houston hopes at some time to become a seaport of the first rank. But of more general interest to all American cities was the account of the great care and large sums expended in the matter of city planning.

Among the recommendations Mr. Putnam makes to the city of Houston as a result of his trip abroad there are some that are of local interest only, but there are others that might as well be directed to a host of other American cities, always remembering that Houston is a city of somewhat less than a hundred thousand inhabitants operating under the commission form of government.

Mr. Putnam recommends an increase of salary from $4000 to $10,000 for the mayor, with a lengthening of the term from two to four or six years. The four commissioners should be allowed to engage in other business, in order to secure competent men who cannot afford to give up their regular business as they are now required to do. Their terms should be lengthened to four years, one to be elected each year in order to secure continuity of policy. The commissioners instead of acting as the heads of the city departments should constitute a board for framing policies, making the mayor actual head of the administration under whom technical experts, appointed on merit during good behaviour should carry on the detailed administration.

Mr. Putnam's advocacy of the initiative, referendum and recall is certainly not inspired by his European experience but is probably a necessary concession to the extreme democracy of his section of the country. Even at that, however, he puts the percentage of voters required for a recall petition at 30 per cent of the number voting at the last election, which is higher than that found in the usual commission charters.

Mr. Putnam recommends municipal ownership and operation of the gas and electrical lighting systems as well as of the street railways, as soon as the borrowing power of the city can be increased meanwhile advocating an increase in the tax rate for municipal improvements. He recommends the creation of a city planning commission to take into account the future growth of Houston, the creation of a free municipal employment bureau, the establishment of public baths, the creation of a municipal slaughter house, and the building of public comfort stations. In addition to all this Mr. Putnam urges an enormous undertaking for making Houston one of the great harbor cities of this country.

Surely this is an interesting and far-seeing plan for a pioneer city of 100,000 and if Mr. Putnam's recommendations are acted upon the development may well be watched with interest by other American cities whose present conditions are at least as sorely in need of improvement as are those of the prosperous city of Houston.

Herman G. James.[1]

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Police News.—*Civilian Deputy.* The board of aldermen of Chicago have passed an ordinance providing for a civilian second deputy superintendent of police with a view to increasing the efficiency of the department by the introduction of new blood into the staff. The members of the uniformed force united in their open opposition to the legislation which they feared would lead to the introduction of a spy system detrimental to efficiency.

Three Platoon System. Director of Public Safety Porter of Philadelphia has introduced tentatively a three platoon system of patrol in that city. Under this system the policemen patrol eight hours on the street, are eight hours in reserve in the station house, and are at home for eight hours. Although the three platoon system requires the appointment of more policemen, it increases the individual efficiency of each man, by shortening his hours of service on patrol.

Single Commissioner System. Eliot Watrous, of New Haven, has introduced into the board of aldermen of that city a bill substituting a single police commissioner for the present antiquated bi-partisan board of six police commissioners. Although Mr. Watrous's plan is absolutely correct from a scientific and from a practical point of view, the political situation in New Haven renders it extremely doubtful whether his bill will be enacted into law this year.

Perjury. In refusing to suspend from duty several Chicago policemen pending their trial on charges of perjury, preferred by the civil service commission, Chief of Police McWeeny is reported by the Chicago Inter Ocean to have made this statement: "Perjury is not a heinous crime. A policeman who commits perjury is not particularly dangerous to the community." The charge is frequently made in courts of justice that policemen are prone to swear falsely on the witness stand. It is believed that this charge is unfounded in fact and that policemen do not as a class have a lower regard for the sanctity of their oath than citizens in general. These quoted words of Chief McWeeny should arouse conscientious citizens however in an endeavor to raise the regard in which the oath is held at present, not only by policemen but by the public in general. Perjury is a heinous crime in every case, and especially in the case of a police officer.

New York Annual Report.[1] The annual report of the New York police department for 1912 contains the following statistics:

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[1] Of The School of Government, University of Texas.

[1] See National Municipal Review vol. i., p 167.

Felony complaints...........	46,178
Felony arrests...............	18,780
Felony convictions...........	5,404

From these statistics the following indices may be deduced.

Complaint—arrest index of police activity............	41
Arrest—conviction index of police efficiency...........	28
Complaint—conviction index of efficiency of police protection..................	11

United Police of Chicago. At the request of the board of Aldermen, the Chicago civil service commission recently conducted an investigation of the "United Police of Chicago," an organization composed of members of the Chicago police department. The civil service commission found that this organization was formed ostensibly for the protection of police officers from liability arising from the honest performance of police duty, that it has been perniciously active in politics, that it collected a large sum of money for purposes of bribery, and that this money was misappropriated by one of its officers. After discussing the history and activities of the United Police in detail, the report of the civil service commission recommends that the organization of an association similar to the United Police of Chicago be prohibited and that the city of Chicago undertake to defend those police officers who may be subjected to civil suits, criminal prosecution or charges before the trial board, resulting from the discharge of their official duties. The report which was prepared by James Miles, efficiency examiner of the Chicago civil service commission, is a very interesting and instructive document for those who are professionally or theoretically interested in police administration.

Leonhard Felix Fuld.

A New Police Brigade in Paris.—The night dangers of Paris have led to the organization of a special independent night brigade of police, but coöperating closely with the regular force. This force will have a uniform of its own, and will be armed with revolvers and night sticks. Each man will have a police dog trained to pull down anyone running, and to hold him until called off by the policeman. These dogs, largely bred in Belgium, are as a rule a cross between the wolf and the European sheep dog. It has therefore become a good deal of a risk for a night wayfarer in a Paris street to run for a distant cab. He is likely to be startled by one of these swift animals darting out from a dark corner and leaping for him, unless arrested by the sharp call of the policeman.

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Accounting Notes.[1]—*How Fargo Declared Dividends.* When Fargo, North Dakota, recently declared a taxpayer's dividend of $10,000, newspapers throughout the country printed the news—many many of them with comments or editorials. That most of the latter were written by persons unfamiliar with municipal finance, and also the facts in this particular case, was evident.

When properly understood, the situation in Fargo at budget making time was no different from that in almost any other city. When the 1913 departmental budget estimates were added up, it was found that it would cost $146,561 to conduct the government for the next year. Now, instead of levying a direct tax for this amount, what did the city fathers do? They did exactly what should be done by city fathers everywhere, and what is done in practically every city. They estimated the amount of miscellaneous revenues which would accrue to the city during the next year, the total of which they found would probably amount to $12,000. Just as every other city when determining the amount which must be raised by taxation deducts the estimated miscellaneous revenues, so did Fargo. That is, they deducted from their budget of expenditures $10,000 of the estimated $12,000. Thus far, the procedure had been ordinary every-day municipal finance and absolutely sound, but at this point someone saw an opportunity for an advertising display, and Fargo, being comparatively small and somewhat removed, succeeded in "putting it over." So the word was sent out that Fargo had declared a dividend of $10,000, or the equal of 6 per cent on the entire tax levy for the year. Under the attractive headlines it was explained that the dividend was to be paid from a surplus which the city by its thrift had managed to accumulate—not from the taxpayers, but in a commercial way, the same as a private corporation. Most of the news items, however, failed to state that the "commercial undertakings" which enabled the city to accumulate the $12,000 surplus were based entirely on its governmental power to levy imposts and make police regulations. In fact, the "estimated $12,000 surplus" comprised taxes on gross earnings of utility companies, licenses, dog taxes, and police court fines.

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[1] Is your city installing new accounts? The author of these "accounting notes" would appreciate the receipt from officials, research and efficiency bureaus, reference bureaus, accounting firms, etc. of all items of news pertaining to this subject.

The use of the term "dividends" in connection with this transaction is not only incorrect but misleading. If by reducing the total tax levy by the amount of the estimated miscellaneous revenues the city of Fargo is declaring a dividend, then practically every city in the United States declares a dividend to its taxpayers every year. This device rings false, and so does the statement of an auditing company, noted in these columns in the January issue, that the city of Spartanburg, South Carolina, had made a "profit" of $11,983 during 1912.

Modern Accounting for Pittsburgh. No better illustration of the present demand for accurate and complete municipal accounts is afforded than in Pittsburgh. After administering the city comptroller's office for more than twenty five years and after passing his sixty-fifth birthday, Comptroller E. S. Morrow within the last year began a thorough revision of the city's accounting and auditing system. On coming to a realization that his accounts actually meant nothing to the public at large, he deliberately turned his back on the precedents of years and began the new installation. The work accomplished thus far has been done by H. S. Breitenstein and others of his own staff with the coöperation of the New York bureau of municipal research and Comptroller Prendergast of New York City.

The installation thus far completed includes the introduction into the general ledger of funding accounts, registration of open market orders and contract liabilities. A study of revenue control methods has been commenced which, it is intended, shall lead to the establishment of accounting and auditing control over both revenue accruals and receipts. A property appraisal has also been authorized, and it is contemplated that by the end of the present year a complete capital balance sheet can be produced.

How the Universities are Helping. The municipal reference bureau of the extension division of the University of Kansas has recently compiled a table showing the bonded indebtedness, assessed valuation and tax levy of each of the eight first class and 31 second class cities of that state for the year 1912. Similar bureaus have been established at Harvard, the University of Wisconsin, and other universities and are proving of much value both to the students and to the public.

Milwaukee's Bureau Reëstablished. During the last quarter the bureau of efficiency and economy of the city of Milwaukee has been rejuvenated. The old bureau lapsed or went out of business at the close of the recent socialist administration of that city. In reëstablishing it on a firmer basis the mayor and council have taken a most commendable step. Ralph Bowman, of the New York training school for public service, has been made director of the new bureau.

Surveys of Springfield and Waterbury. During the past quarter the New York bureau of municipal research made preliminary surveys of the organization, accounting and business methods of the cities of Springeld, Mass. and Waterbury, Conn. Both surveys were financed by public-spirited citizens in the respective cities.

Uniform System for New York's Cities. State Comptroller Sohmer of New York and his accounting staff have been engaged for several months in devising a uniform system of accounts for second class cities in New York. The details of the systems have been practically all worked out and the comptroller's office is ready to install the system upon request. This is the same plan which has been followed by Director Gettemy of the Massachusetts bureau of statistics, the board of public affairs in Wisconsin, and similar bureaus in Ohio, Indiana, Iowa and other states. Readers who desire further information regarding Comptroller Sohmer's system are referred to an article in the February number of the Journal of Accountancy by John J. Magilton, auditor to the comptroller.

Describes Method of Collecting Taxes. The General Manifold Printing Company of 30 Church Street, New York, has issued a descriptive pamphlet of the new method of making tax collections, recenty installed in the cites of New York and Buffalo. It is sent free upon request.

Herbert R. Sands.[1]

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Standing Room in Portland.—Portland, Oregon, has passed an ordinance providing that no passenger who has to stand shall be required to pay more than 3 cents for a full fare ride or 2½ cents for tickets bought in quantities of one hundred. Persons paying only 3 cents are entitled to transfers, and to all the privileges of a regular passenger. The city has also fixed by ordinance a 50-cent minimum monthly charge for each consumer of gas or electricity. Neither ordinance has as yet been enforced for the reason that the Portland Railway, Light and Power Company has secured an injunction against the city restraining their enforcement. However, the gas company has already reduced its minimum rate to 50 cents. The city is expecting that the temporary injunction will not be made a permanent one.

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Mayor Henry J. Arnold, of Denver, has vetoed a light ordinance, the primary purpose of which was to prohibit discrimination in distributing or selling electric current for lighting purposes, and prohibiting the granting of rebates, drawbacks, refunds or discounts to any consumers and users except to charitable institutions. The mayor vetoed the ordinance primarily on the ground that it would practically close every advertising lighting feature in the main streets of the city and would prohibit the company from making any donations of light or service for any convention or public gathering brought to Denver. He agreed to draw up a bill that would give reasonable regulations and yet be satisfactory both to the consumer and to the city's various civic and commercial organizations.

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Des Moines Waterworks.—Des Moines has taken over the waterworks under public ownership. The price was determined by a court of three district judges appointed by the supreme court of the state upon the application of the city. This court is in fact simply a selected condemnation jury and the proceedings are in every way parallel to those before the ordinary sheriff's jury, except for the unusual character of this particular jury. This proceeding is in accordance with a special Iowa statute on the acquisition of public utilities by cities. The local water company and the city have been in a contention over rates and regulations for a great many years. Meantime, the franchise of the company has expired and the people decided by an overwhelming vote that the proper solution is public ownership.

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[1] Certified public accountant, with New York bureau of municipal research.

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Los Angeles Municipal Cement Production.[1]—The production of cement by the city of Los Angeles in connection with the construction of the city aqueduct furnishes an unusual phase of municipal activity. The city has been operating four cement mills, three of which are devoted to the manufacture of modified or tufa cement, obtained by grinding tufa with pure cement. Up to June 30, 1912 the mills had turned out 711,190 barrels of pure cement and 227,486 barrels of modified or tufa cement. Owing to the failure of the aqueduct bureau, under which the mills are operated, to take uniformly into account all elements, various figures have been given in the monthly statements of the bureau as to the cost of production, leading to incorrect and conflicting quotations of figures; but according to City Auditor Myers who has made an exhaustive examination of the cost of the city cement production, the pure cement averaged $2.485 per barrel and the tufa, $1.38, allowing in both instances for depreciation, interest on money invested and insurance.

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A Municipal Dairy.—The city of Cleveland has purchased a great tract of two thousand acres (more than three square miles of land) absorbing twenty-five farms. This tract is two and one-half miles long and more than a mile wide. Upon this vast area are four separate enterprises. The Colony Farm for the almshouse people, the Overlook Farm for the tuberculosis patients, the Correction Farm for the House of Correction prisoners, the Highland Park Farm for the development of a great municipal cemetery. The whole tract, named by the city council "The Cooley Farms" after Harris R. Cooley, the director of charities and correction who has been the father of the plan, thus consists of four estates of five hundred acres each.

In the development of the dairy to provide milk for the tuberculosis sanatorium and the other institutions, there are now about one hundred cows, a part of them registered Holsteins. A model dairy has just been completed, the barn unit to accommodate fifty cows. Two more are to be built, and two hundred cows will be provided for. The quality of the stock will be developed until there will be one large herd all thorough-bred Holsteins.

The plan is to supply the groups on the farms and also the municipal institutions in the city with pure milk produced from the best cows living under the best conditions. The last test showed the herd free from tuberculosis.

The farms are all of rolling clay land with springs and running streams furnishing an ideal place for pasturage. The results will be pure milk for our municipal institutions, thorough bred stock for sale, the enrichment of the great farms and for the surrounding country the fine example of a well kept dairy.

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The Atlantic City Trolley Lines will fight Mayor Riddle's ordinance fixing a 3-cent fare for those who are not given seats in the street cars, and imposing a $5000 fine for violation.

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Contractors and Public Officials.—The Municipal Journal, October 17, 1912, reports the interesting address of C. A. Crane, secretary of the General Contractors' Association, delivered to the American Road Congress, which met in Atlantic City, October 5, relating to the Rela tion between Contractors and Public Officials. In the course of his address, Mr. Crane makes the pertinent suggestion:

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[1] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, October, 1912, p. 725.

> Cut out the personal relations between the contractors and the public officials and let these relations be through the proxy of an engineering official. Choose a big man in his profession and pay him a big salary—put him under a heavy bond to guarantee the accuracy of his work and the validity of his certificates of payment. Why should a disbursing officer be held responsible for an engineer's voucher, unless he has equal facilities for checking the work that the engineer had in computing the amount? Centralize the power and the responsibility.

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The Flint (Michigan) Equal Suffrage Association has accepted the invitation of Mayor Mott of that city to coöperate with him in improving the municipal housekeeping of that city. The mayor's idea is to have a municipal housekeeping commission composed of five women.

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Electoral Reform in Pennsylvania.—The commission appointed by Governor Stuart in 1908 to revise and codify the election laws of Pennsylvania presented to the legislature its third and final report signed by six of the seven members of the commission. A minority report was presented by William Coleman Freeman of Lebanon. Twenty-two bills accompany the report. They deal with such subjects as, a system of party enrollment with the payment of the taxes at the time of registration; regulating the preëmption of party names; separate ballots for national, state and local elections, and extending the time of registration. Two years ago a comprehensive election code was presented as a part of this report at that time. The commission makes no recommendations on the subject of the initiative, referendum, recall, commission form of government or woman suffrage, declaring that these fields are beyond the scope of the commission's duties. Mr. Freeman in his minority report declares for the submission of the question of woman's suffrage to the voters of the state, the limitation of campaign expenses and a commission form of government.[1]

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The Merit System in Milwaukee.—The fight for the extension of civil service reform in Milwaukee continues under the leadership of John A. Butler. The City Club has also taken up the matter with intelligence and vigor.

III. CITY PLANNING AND IMPROVEMENT

Lincoln Memorial.—The erection and dedication of a fitting national memorial to President Lincoln in the City of Washington, has been made possible by the passage of a bill by Congress, approving the report of the Lincoln Memorial Commission, recommending the adoption of the plans prepared by Henry Bacon of New York, for the building in Potomac Park, along the Potomac River, of a memorial building of the Greek type of architecture, to cost $2,000,000. Careful consideration was given by the commission to several plans, all of which were referred to the commission on fine arts which reported in favor of Mr. Bacon's plan.

For a time it looked as if the memorial undertaking might fail of passage because of an effort made in the House of Representatives to substitute for the memorial structure in Washington, a roadway to be built by the government from Washington to Gettysburg and to be called the "Lincoln Memorial Road." That undertaking was urged with great vigor by individuals and organizations, but was opposed on the grounds that a roadway would not be a fitting memorial, that it would be a very expensive undertaking, and that the $2,000,000 appropriated for such a memorial would be but a small portion of the money necessary to build a road, to say nothing of its maintenance.

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[1] Copies of both reports can be had on application to the chairman, Frank P. Pritchard, Land Title Building, Philadelphia.

By united effort on the part of various organizations, such as the American Institute of Architects, the American Civic Association, and others public sentiment was aroused in all parts of the United States in favor of the report of the Lincoln Memorial Commission, and late in January, the bill was finally passed by the House of Representatives by a large majority, the Senate having taken action almost unanimously a few weeks before. Work will be commenced at once on the new structure, and when it is completed it is believed that it will be one of the most dignified and beautiful memorials ever erected. It will occupy a commanding position on the Potomac, overlooking the river, and facing the beautiful Lee Mansion in Arlington. It is expected that in the course of a few years, the federal government will build a beautiful bridge connecting the memorial with Arlington, and that will make it a part of the proposed scheme for the larger development of Washington according to the report of the McMillan committee of some years ago.

Richard B. Watrous.[1]

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City Planning Competition.—The committee on the study of city planning appointed at the last National Conference on City Planning has been holding conferences to discuss the method of outlining the data as a basis for the proposed study. It is proposed that the committee prepare and send out a blank form of statement, to be filled in by all participants, which should include among others the following points: (1) area of tract; (2) the total cost of the land; (3) the percentage in streets, parks, playgrounds, saleable lots, etc.; (4) the value of lots per acre; (5) the cost of streets, (pavement, curb, sidewalk, grading, trees, etc.); (6) the cost of parks and playgrounds; (7) the cost of sewers; (8) carrying charges including interest, taxes, selling cost; (9) profit; (10) the selling price of lots ready for building; also that unit costs be assumed by the committee in a number of instances where there would be variations in different parts of the country. These variations would have no particular bearing upon the solutions of the problems. For example, there should be two or three kinds of road pavements listed, with cost; but the entrant would be free to choose any other kind of pavement he might desire. The same method would apply to sidewalks. So far twenty-two entries have been made in the competition from all parts of the country.

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Chicago's City Planning Competition.—The Chicago City Club held a housing exhibit on March 7. As a stimulating and constructive feature it displayed plans showing the possibilities according to the best current practice for laying out and improving for residence purposes areas in Chicago now unoccupied. In conjunction with the Illinois Chapter of the American Institute of Architects the club established a competition for plans for laying out as a residence district a typical area in the outskirts of the city, Alfred L. Baker, the president of the club, offering $600 for prizes for such plans.

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City Improvements.—*Scranton, Pa.*—Mayor John Von Bergen has appointed a city planning commission of nine men. *Louisville, Ky.*, has taken the first step for a general plan toward improving Louisville. A committee has been appointed with Mayor W. O. Head as chairman. This committee will consider the question of appointing a committee to lay out a plan. *New York*—The City Club is forming an Olmsted Memorial Committee to erect a suitable memorial to Frederick Law Olmsted, the designer and creator of Central Park. Although Mr. Olmsted died in 1903, none has been erected for him either in Central Park or elsewhere. *Chicago*—The city's fight aginst the "wall of exclusion" raised along the lake shore from Twelfth Street south by the Illinois Central Railway and other property owners is set forth in the newly issued report of the Lakeshore Reclamation Committee appointed in January 1910. *Omaha*—Representatives of fifteen civic organizations coöperated in forming a civic league to plan definitely for the physical improvement of Omaha. *Los Angeles*—A proposition is pending to build a highway from the center of the city to the port of San Pedro, now a part of the city in order to provide adequate transportaiton facilities for shippers. Another interesting proposition under foot is that of reclaiming the waste places in and around the city, especially adjacent to the new aqueduct. *Detroit*—Plans for an outer boulevard are being considered by the City Plan and Improvement Commission. *Cincinnati*—Mayor Hunt has appointed a city planning commission to coöperate in preparing a plan of action in the construction of the new court house and jail. *Atlanta Ga.*—An improvement commission, has been appointed to advance the planning of work for the improvement of the city. *Joplin, Mo.*—Under the leadership of the Commercial Club the civic clubs of the city have been brought together to coördinate efforts in behalf of the extension and development of the city. *Erie, Pa.*—The city planning committee of which F. Irving Bleakley is chairman, has planned a bill for third class cities providing for the appointment of city planning commissions in such cities. *Chicago*—Lorado Taft has been commissioned by the board of trustees of the Art Institute to begin work on the great fountain of Time designed for erection at the western terminus of the Midway Plaisance. *Canada*—A Town Planning and Civic Improvement League for the province of Ontario has been launched. A preliminary meeting was held at Berlin, Ontario, and representatives from Toronto, Galt, Ottawa and other leading cities in the province were present. *Davenport, Iowa*—A levee improvement commission has had plans drawn for a systematic and harmonious improvement of the levee following the example of other cities along the river which have transformed its appearance in many places. *Seattle* has gone a little backward in its city planning movement, having recently voted $950,000 for a county court house in the down town congested district at a point other than that suggested by the city planning commission. *Cincinnati* will codify the legislation on smoke abatement and pollution and furnace installation, Mayor Hunt having appointed a commission consisting of Prof. John T. Faig, George Wright and William Mittendorf to perform this work. The smoke inspector is a member ex officio of the commission. *Pittsburgh* is providing for a number of public comfort stations having votd $90,000 in a recent loan bill for that purpose.

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[1] Secretary, American Civic Association.

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Philadelphia Mayor Vetoes for Aesthetic Reasons.—Recently Mayor Blankenburg, of Philadelphia, returned without approval a council ordinance permitting the erection of a platform scale on a sidewalk for the reason that it would mar the beauty and attractiveness of the locality, and that the ordinance was contrary to the aim of the city to make more attractive the streets and parks of the municipality.

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Philadelphia Inaugurates Economic System of Waste Paper Disposal.—Following the example of cities abroad, Director Cooke, of the Philadelphia departwent of public works is inaugurating a system for the collection of waste paper by having the house-holder place the waste in bags which are furnished by a contractor or purchaser of the waste. As yet the experiment has not been carried far enough to enable the director to say whether the city will pay for having the waste removed or the contractor pay for the privilege.

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A Municipal Cemetery.—Mayor Kutcher, of Sheridan, Wyoming, is advocating a municipal graveyard and asserts:

> Practically everybody with whom I have talked approves the idea. They want a cemetery maintained by the city, where they may purchase lots at reasonable cost, with provision for the perpetual care and maintenance of the plot included in the purchase agreement.

⁂

Canadian City Planning.—The Union of Canadian Municipalities for about four years has carried on a campaign throughout Canada in favor of complete city planning. The more important cities have been particularly urged to take up the question definitely and all have movements more or less developed in the right direction. The most advanced movement is that of the metropolitan parks commission of Montreal, which became permanent in May 1912 with powers similar to those of Boston. In the city of Quebec something has been done by the Dominion government which has established the Quebec battlefields park commission, and in Ottawa the Dominion government improvement commission has been beautifying the capital for years. In Toronto, the movement is principally centered in the activities of the civic art guild. Decided assistance was rendered the efforts of the Union by a tour through Canada in the summer of 1911 by Henry Vivian, M. P., London, the well known authority on garden cities.

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The National Conference on City Planning will be held in Chicago, May 5, 6 and 7.

Los Angeles School Gardening Shows Interesting Development.—For several years school gardens were carried on in Los Angeles by some of the schools, but not until lately was special provision made for developing the work in a systematic manner through the creation of an agricultural department of the Los Angeles schools under the supervision of Clayton F. Palmer and four assistants. The special teachers go from school to school, giving instruction and developing agriculture in its various phases in the different grades, each of them responsible for the development and maintenance of the work in a definite portion of the city. In each of these there is being established a demonstration center at a school where conditions seem most favorable for developing the work through all the grades. Available school grounds and nearby vacant lots are utilized, and even distant lots are turned to account by special arrangements for the pupils. In addition to ordinary gardening, considerable practical work is done in the propagation of fruits, ornamental and forest trees. Home gardening is especially encouraged. During the coming year ornamentation of the school grounds will be pushed, the material for which will be propagated largely as part of the class work of the students. The board of education, the superintendent of schools, and the teachers themselves are giving the project their sympathetic support, and during the past summer the board made a most encouraging move in favor of better results in school gardening in providing summer gardeners to care for the grounds during school vacation.

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Madrid has many ambitious plans under consideration for the beautifying of the city itself and for the improvement of the municipal services,[1] but it has been unable to carry through many of its most important projects on account of the lack of funds arising from a radical change in the manner of raising revenue inaugurated on July 1, 1911. Prior to that time, the principal source of income was from the octroi taxes. These were abolished on the date mentioned on all foodstuffs except fresh meat, upon which the octroi duty is about 2.5 cents a pound. To cover the deficit thus caused in the revenue, a graded tax on rents, running up to 15 per cent of the rent, and an increased tax on "carriages of luxury" were instituted. The rent tax is paid by the renter, as the landlords already pay an income tax on the rentals they receive. The new taxes were at the outset unpopular and difficult to collect, so that the municipality has been unable to push the work of widening and straightening streets, laying new pavements and extending the park system.

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[1] According to Consul Charles L. Hoover.

IV. POLITICS

Seattle and the Recall.—The experience of Seattle in the recent movement to recall the mayor presents some features that throw light upon the practical use of the recall in municipal affairs. Soon after election, Mayor Cotterill found himself charged with general inefficiency and failure to enforce the laws by a recall association, said to have been financed largely by saloon and gambling resort interests, which circulated recall petitions and conducted a campaign to have him removed from office. The agitation of the recall association received little support however, until the mayor became inadvertently intangled in a controversy between the Spanish American War Veterans and the Industrial Workers of the World by criticising a group of the former for making an attack upon the latter while engaged in a peaceful parade carrying the red flag, the emblem of the I. W. W. Several newspapers took up the controversy and ascribed the mayor's criticism to opposition to the American patriots and support of the I. W. W. As a result of this incident, a large number of persons put their names to a recall petition which was finally filed as complete. A careful check of the names on the petition was made, however, and it was found that there was a very large number of duplications, spurious names and addresses and a considerable number of forgeries, reducing the signatures below the recall number. Under the circumstanes the petition was held insufficient.

Seattle is unfortunate in having a daily newspaper of large circulation, that is notorious for its support of every special interest and for its bitter opposition to every kind of civic reform. This paper was the defender of the vice regime under Gill. It has consistently opposed all the modern features of the charter, such as election of councilmen at large, initiative and referendum, recall and public ownership.

From the time that Gill was ousted in the recall election of 1911, this paper, allied with the worst interests in the city, has constantly assailed the mayor and the police in editorials, cartoons and distorted news articles in the attempt to create a public sentiment that would make it possible to recall the mayor. But in spite of this newspaper support the effort to recall Dilling, who succeeded Gill, failed.

The election of Cotterill was a menace to all that this paper represented and its attack on the forces of order and decency was renewed with increased vigor. After months of the most active support given to the movement the recall petitions were filed. About one-half the names on these petitions were found to be forgeries or the names of persons not registered.

Seattle's experience has fully vindicated the principle of the recall. It was successfully invoked against the representative of vice and special privilege, but both subsequent attempts to employ it against good government have failed.[1]

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Boston.—At the last municipal election held in January there were only four candidates to be elected, three members of the city council and one member of the school committee. There were fewer candidates than ever before. There was also very little interest in the election. The registration was 112,126; 46,853 names or 41.8 per cent were checked upon the voting list as voting for councilmen; 11,127 women were registered for the school committee; 4939 or 44.4 per cent voted. Two out of the three candidates for council endorsed by the Good Government Association were elected. The third successful candidate was an erratic politician for whom many people voted either as a matter of good nature or to see what would happen, with the result that he ran third in the poll. His election will do no serious harm to the city as seven of the nine members of the city council are men who were recommended by the Good Government Association at the time of their election. The two good government candidates reëlected in January had given such generally satisfactory service that no one connected with the dominant political organization thought there was the slightest chance of defeating them. For the school committee Miss Curtis who was endorsed by the Good Government Association, defeated the candidate backed by the dominant political organization.

Cleveland Urges Official Municipal Lobby at State Capitol.—Following the idea of the New York Citizen's Union and the practice of cities in Europe, the Cleveland city council committee on legislation is urging the formation of a league of the committees on legislation of the councils of all the larger cities of the state for the purpose of providing a powerful official municipal lobby at Columbus. Chairman E. P. Dowling, of the Cleveland city council committee on legislations, says:

> Each city has its own problems. The conditions arising in many cities are very similar, but up to the present time there has been no coherent, concerted action by the legislators from the counties in which the cities are located looking toward passage of laws enabling cities to meet their conditions.

Mr. Dowling also believes the councils should provide in their rules that the mayor of the city be ex officio a member of the council committee on legislation.

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Detroit Graft Prosecution.—Prosecuting Attorney Hugh Shepherd, of Detroit, November 9 filed a petition for a change of venue with Judge Phelan for the cases of Alderman Theissen, Hindle, Deimel, Walsh, Glinnan and other men named on the blanket warrant charging them with conspiracy to accept a bribe. No date was set.

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The Governor of Washington has refused to pardon Seattle's former chief of police, Wappenstein, who was convicted on July 19, 1911 of receiving a bribe and sentenced to a term in the penitentiary of from three to twelve years.

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[1] Based on statements of C. J. France and Prof. J. Allen Smith.

V. CONFERENCES AND ASSOCIATIONS

Second World's Congress of International Associations.—The Second World's Congress of International Associations will be held at Ghent, Brussels, this summer. From the central office of this body two important circulars have been sent out, one noting the questions to be considered by the union of international associations, the other describing the first town planning and municipal organization congress, which is to follow. Among the questions to be considered at the meeting of the international association is that of organization and practical measures necessary to develop an international center and to give it a location and a material instalation. This international association is a very broad organization and considers a great many other questions than those which relate to cities. The officers of the congress have in mind the organization of scientific, technical and social publications in such a way as to increase the diffusion of knowledge and to "draw closer the bonds of the intellectual, international coöperation." Terminology will also come in for a consideration. The congress has been organized with the aid of the delegates who attended the first meeting and of the special commission which has been formed since. The invitation has been sent to all of the international associations which have adhered to the union and will also include the official delegates of the states, individual members and those who have been specially invited to take part in the debates.

To ascertain the wishes of those who expect to be present where will be a preliminary referendum inquiry on the various questions that will come up for discussion. In this way information will be gathered concerning the thoughts, suggestions and precedents to be considered and followed. There will be adequate reports of the results of the referendum. It is expected that eighteen countries will be represented at the congress and the subsequent exhibition, and steps are being taken to create "a life in common during the portion of the congress so that there may be a real community of interest among the delegates."[1]

The first congress was held in 1910.

The town planning conference will be carried on through July and August. In its circular the organizing committee points out the very remarkable growth of cities during the nineteenth century and how that has brought to the front for urgent and thoughtful discussion problems of the first consideration. It very properly declares that the solutions found by one community are useful for the guidance of others and "it follows that everyone who is concerned with the betterment of town life will profit by bringing his experience to a common centre of discussion, where he can modify or develop his schemes by comparison with those of other students." According to the London Municipal Journal, in the matter of town planning it is intended to continue the work of the London town planning congress, the Berlin exhibition of 1910, and the Düsseldorf exhibition of 1912. A general program of matters for debate has been tentatively prepared in which the subject is divided into sections as follows:

A. *Town Extension.* General principles of town growth—The street, classification of its types—Undeveloped areas—Public buildings—Housing, building regulations, etc.—Transport—Town divisions or quarters—Classes of towns, *e.g.*, garden cities, modern villages, industrial areas, places of resort, etc., and their various treatment—Congested districts.

B. *Preservation and Administration of Old Districts.* Street works, new roads—Public monuments—Town beautifying—Public thoroughfares—Traffic regulations—Metropolitan transport—The necessary legal and administrative powers.

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[1] Based on the translation by Anna Florence Woodruff.

Besides this general scheme, a number of specific questions on the same matters are set down as suitable topics of debate, on which it is proposed that papers should be read, to be followed by discussion. The following examples will indicate the nature and scope of the proposed agenda?

Question 1. When an authority asks for plans of an intended extension, what data would be required by the architect and engineers before proceeding with the plans, i.e., with reference to bye-laws, information as to quantity and nature of rolling stock, relief of the land, points of convergence of roadways, boundaries of various quarters, etc.?

Question 2. What proportion of space in a city should be open—as parks, squares, public places, etc.—judging from the plans of the great capitals?

Question 8. What aesthetic rules are to be applied to the town-planning of places of resort such as are constantly being formed on the sea coast and near thermal springs?

Question 9. Study the rules to follow for the creation of (a) garden cities, (b) places of resort in picturesque sites which have to be preserved, (c) industrial centres, (d) modern villages, and (e) colonial or settlers' towns.

Question 10. Is the construction of circuses or open spaces at the intersection of large roads in urban areas to be recommended?

Question 12. Describe the best conditions for the construction in towns of routes for heavy traffic by modern means of transport. State the cases in which recourse must be taken to overhead ways as in New York, or underground, as is proposed by M. Henard for certain streets in Paris.

Question 14. What conditions are to be fulfilled by plans for public parks in large cities? Is it desirable to construct reserved roadways for (a) motors, (b) pedestrians, (c) cyclists, (d) tramways?

Question 15. What are the possible means of passage "super" and "sub," i.e., overhead and underground, at crossings and quadrants, intended to facilitate the circulation of traffic in large modern cities?

With regard to the second section of the congress, it is proposed to consider the subject under the following headings: (1) The legal and (2) the financial, constitution of the authority, (3) its economic scope, (4) its intellectual and moral well-being, and (5) its social activities. The committee suggests that the following questions should be brought up for deliberation:

What should be the legal constitution of the authority; what should be its relations with its superior authorities, with other similar authorities, and with the inhabitants of the district or borough?

What should be the financial constitution of the authority, the extent of its control of the real and mobile estate which form part of its resources, and the rates and imposts, from which it draws its revenue?

How the staff of the municipal administration should be regulated with regard to its recruitment, formation and remuneration.

How can the authority's economic activity reach its highest stage of development; what should be the rules governing grants, rating, excise, etc.?

How to develop the intellectual and moral well-being of communal organisms. Schools excepted as being so large a subject; other educational works still demand attention, such as libraries, museums, lecture halls, etc.

What is the extent of local powers in social matters? What is the communal liability to the various stations of life—infancy, youth, and old age—in particular circumstances, such as maternity, accident, unemployment, etc.?

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The Second National Housing Conference.—In Philadelphia, the city of homes, a delegate to the second national housing conference last week, during one of the inspection trips, opened a cellar door and started down the steps to investigate. His investigation stopped at the first step for below him was a pool of filthy water rising almost to the level of the ground outside. His exclamation of surprise drew the attention not only of the rest of the delegates but also of one of the tenants. "That water," she said, "has been there three years." "Then why don't the health authorities do something about it?" demanded a Philadelphian, "and if thy don't act why doesn't the housing commission demand action? Certainly the people of Philadelphia will stand behind any measures to abolish such a condition as this."

But that is the question; will they? To abolish just such unwholesome conditions costs money, it calls for a health department adequately supplied with funds, with men and with legal powers. Few, if any, of our American city health departments are now so supplied and one of the chief purposes of the second national conference on housing in America was to call the attention of the people to the imperative need for them.

But this was far from being the only purpose of the conference. The evils that must be cured form one phase of the housing problem, the constructive work that may be done in future city building forms another quite as important; and the two hundred and thirty-one delegates representing seventy-six cities and twenty-three American states and Canadian provinces were interested in both. So the first inspection trip showed the bad housing conditions of Philadelphia; the unsewered streets flanked by old houses with privy vaults in the tiny, dirty yards, ill-smelling and sodden from surface drainage, the unventilated rooms of back to back dwellings, the dark rooms and halls of old tenements. The second trip took the delegates into newer parts of the city and showed them the typical single family houses—houses which ensure a privacy and a sense of family unity impossible in tenements, the houses of the Octavia Hill Association—once as bad as the worst but repaired and remodeled so that while yielding a fair return on the investment they also provide attractive homes at small rentals, the houses of the Girard Estate—too expensive for the wage-earner but indicating by their centralized management, their central heating plant, and their construction, economies which may be applied to the building and management of less costly dwellings.

The program of the conference covered both sides of the housing problem. Health officials from more than a score of American and Canadian cities, from the federal health service and from that of the Dominion told of the progress they are making in cleaning up the slums. In this the Canadians appeared to have the advantage, at least those from Ontario cities, for there seems to be no doubt of the adequacy of their powers. In some of the American municipalities inspectors hesitate to enter private premises even when they suspect the existence there of unsanitary conditions. This seemed strange to Dr. Charles J. Hastings, medical health officer of Toronto, who said that he sends his inspectors into any house whether that of a poor man or a rich man, "How else," he asked, "can we know what the conditions are?" As for his powers of enforcement and the way in which those powers are upheld by the courts and the legal end of the city government—a very weak point in many American towns—he told a little anecdote. "Some time ago the health officer had occasion to order repairs on a house owned by a member of the city council. Unable to get him to modify his order the councilman sought the city solicitor. "Did the health officer tell you to do that?" asked the solicitor. "He did," replied the councilman indignantly. "Then," said the solicitor comfortingly, "all I can tell you is that if the health officer tells you to go to hell, you've got to go." So Toronto is being cleaned up.

This matter of the health officer's powers in the improvement of housing was dealt with at length by Mrs. Albion Fellows Bacon, author of the Indiana state housing law, in her paper on "Regulation by Law," by Mrs. Johanna von Wagner, under the title "Instructive Sanitary Inspection," and by Lawrence Veiller, secretary of the National Housing Association in his discussion on "Room Overcrowding and the Lodger Evil." These twin evils are almost universal and so far only two cities have made any consistent attempt to deal with them, New York and Boston. Mr. Veiller stated that the only practical method is to hold the owner responsible. The city can hold the owner, the owner can control his tenants, but the city can not effectively reach the tenants. To attempt to divide responsibility between owner and tenants, as is often proposed, will simply result in falling between two stools.

This position was endorsed at various times during the conference by delegates who have had practical experience with properties of the kind that usually cause the most trouble. Alfred T. White, owner of the Riverside Buildings in Brooklyn, one of the pioneers in the American housing movement and for more than thirty-five years an owner of tenement property, said: "If I had my life to live over again, I would rather do without any other investment I ever made than the one I made in tenement houses. The tenants will take care of the property if it is properly managed. We hear no more of the old libel that they won't take care of the improved houses." A representative of the Octavia Hill Association, after showing that the last annual bill for repairs due to carelessness of tenants in the association's 500 houses was only $50, answered the question, "To what extent are tenants responsible for bad housing conditions," by the one word "None."

The constructive side of housing was dealt with in a number of discussions beginning with Lee K. Frankel's address on financing the small houses. Grosvenor Atterbury showed the reverse side of the promising picture so often presented under the caption "Garden Cities." Elmer S. Forbes, described the improvements possible in rural and suburban housing. John Nolen discussed the relation between the factory and the home and John Ihlder described the best practicable types of wage-earners' houses in three locations; near the center of the city, on the outskirts and in small communities, laying especial stress on the necessity for discouraging the build- of tenement or multiple dwellings and holding out as the ideal to be kept constantly in mind the single family detached house with its own yard or garden.

Among the delegates were a considerable number who are now actively engaged in building small houses for wage-earners. In order to take advantage of each other's experience in practical details they held a session between the regular meetings. Their purpose was to learn what experience has shown is the least amount for which a house meeting the minimum requirements can be built. This would then set a standard. The two-family houses built by the Washington Sanitary Improvement Company in which three rooms and bath rent for $9 a month seemed to come the nearest to this, and General George M. Sternberg's description of their arrangement, the number of rooms, and the method of financing them gave standards upon which the discussion was based.

England as well as Canada contributed to the conference for at the banquet which brought the three days' sessions to a close Ambassador Bryce told of the housing movement in Great Britain, in which he has been one of the leaders. It is the smaller cities, he said, that have the greatest opportunities to become home communities, and therefore he decried the desire for mere bigness.

At the opening of the conference Robert W. de Forest, president of the National Housing Association, stated its purpose. "We are here to help," he said; "let us aim at practical things. Do not let us try to do everything, for we can't. Some things we can do; let us pick the most important and do them. And everywhere let us hold up the hands of our officials at home, not merely pursue them with hostile criticism." That expressed the spirit of the conference, coöperation between citizens and officials in the doing of practical things.

John Ihlder.

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Conference on State Control of the Milk Industry.—On February 5 there was held in New York City, under the auspices of the New York Milk Committee, a conference to consider a program for "legislation Looking toward Uniform State Control of the Milk Industry." The governors of nine northeastern states had been requested by the Committee to name three delegates each to represent their state departments of health and of agriculture and also the private dairy interests. All the New England states except Maine and Rhode Island participated in the conference, as did New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania and Maryland. The federal public health service and the bureau of animal industry were also represented. Over twenty delegates responded to the roll call.

While the conference was free to vote as it chose on the questions placed on the program, a series of suggestions after most of the questions plainly indicated the opinions if not the desire of those who had framed the program. Most of the questions raised were decided in accordance with the program suggestions, but quite the contrary was the case with what might be termed the fundamental administrative suggestions.

Briefly stated, the conference declared in favor of (1) state inspection of dairy farms, centralized in the state board of agriculture, or where such a board does not exist then in the state live stock sanitary board; (2) state control of all milk products, as well as milk itself; (3) the classification or grading of dairy herds into (A) tuberculin tested and physically tested, (B) not tuberculin tested but physically perfect, (C) not tuberculin tested and not physically examined; (4) the use of the U. S. government score cards for scoring dairies; (5) that all milk should be divided into four classes, according to the classes of herds from which it comes, its bacterial contents (numerical counts) and conditions making for cleanliness or non-infectiousness; (6) and that the function of municipal boards of health should (virtually) be confined to the control of milk after it comes within the municipal boundaries.

Aside from establishing the principles of (1) state control of everything pertaining to the milk supply outside the municipalities concerned and (2) local control within those cities and towns, which was accomplished, the apparent hope of the program framers, and presumably of the New York milk committee, was to secure a declaration from the conference in favor of vesting centralized state milk control in a state milk board, composite in character so as to represent various interests, and then to divide the administrative work (chiefly inspection of various sorts) between the health and agricultural departments of each state. The program suggestion for a state milk board provided for a chairman, who should be the state commissioner of health; a vice-chairman, who should be the state commissioner of agriculture (or of the state cattle bureau); the assistant attorney-general; the dean of the state dairy school; and a sanitarian learned in bacteriology and medicine.

As might have been expected, the representatives of the state agricultural department and of the private dairy interests joined votes against the state health department delegates and completely smashed this part of the program. That is, the composite milk board suggestion was overwhelmingly defeated and in its place the conference voted in favor of placing centralized milk control in the state department of agriculture. The Conference did declare, however, in favor of giving the state department of health certain inspection work, although a strong effort was made to confine this within narrower limits than the program framers had suggested.

So far as local boards of health were concerned the conference left them, as the program framers evidently desired, with powers much more limited than those now exercised by a goodly number of the more progressive boards of health of the country. Assertions were not lacking to the effect that there was no intention of curtailing any of the existing powers of local boards of health over their milk supplies, but the spirit of the program, of much of the discussion and of the majority of those who voted was to give the states full control of the production, canning or bottling and shipping of milk and leave the local boards no powers until the milk was within the city or town limits. The strongest pleas in support of this plan were that by it alone would duplication of inspection be avoided and efficient inspection of any kind be established; but little attention was paid to the small likelihood that for years to come any state in the Union will provide the money and the efficient organization needed for so thorough-going a state-wide dairy inspection as would render it safe for local boards of health to give no attention to their milk supplies until the milk enters the municipality.

Notwithstanding the unhappy way in which portions of the program were framed (not of all which have been mentioned here), and even though the milk-producing delegates out numbered the health delegates present by more than two to one, the conference gave promise of helpful coöperative work among these conflicting interests in the future.

M. N. Baker.[1]

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The Ohio Municipal League organized a year ago at a conference of Ohio cities, held its first annual meeting in Columbus on January 22 and 23. The Conference was called last year primarily for the purpose of securing some unanimity on a municipal home rule proposal to be submitted to the Constitutional Convention.[2]

The main subject for discussion, therefore, at the first annual meeting of the league was the scope of the home rule amendment and the legislation necessary to put the amendment into full effect. The opinion of Mayor Newton D. Baker, president of the League, and others was that it grants to the cities of the state the broadest home rule powers in strictly local affairs and permits them to adopt and enforce within their limits such local police, sanitary and other similar regulations are as not in conflict with general laws. This view was declared to be the intention of the constitutional convention by three members of the convention who were delegates in the Conference. Whether the Ohio courts will so hold is yet to be seen.

A committee of the Municipal Association of Cleveland submitted to the conference the drafts of three forms of charters for consideration and submission, later, to the legislature: the commission plan, the city manager plan and the federal plan. These were all discussed at some length; a number of amendments were offered; the plans were approved in general and were then submitted, with amendments, to a committee of fifteen from various cities with full power to revise, and submit them to the legislature in completed form.

The general assembly seems to be in full sympathy with the league's program, and the three plans in their final form, will in all probability, be enacted into law. Many of the smaller cities of the state are waiting to see the shape in which these so-called "hand-me-down" charters will emerge from the legislative hopper before taking any steps toward preparing charters of their own making. The League took a firm stand in favor of the civil service act also framed by the Municipal Association and introduced into the Senate by Senator Carl D. Friebolin. The taxation question was discussed at some length and a number of amendments were recommended to the Smith 1 per cent law.

More than three hundred delegates from sixty-three municipalities were present. Twenty-four of these were mayors. The others were officials and unofficial representatives appointed as delegates by the mayors of the various cities.

The following officers were elected for the ensuing year: President, Henry T. Hunt, Mayor of Cincinnati; secretary-treasurer, Mayo Fesler, Cleveland.

Mayo Fesler.

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[1] President, Montclair, N. J., board of health.

[2] See National Municipal Review, vol. i, p. 285.

League of Missouri Municipalities.—The fifth annual meeting was held in St. Louis on December 17, 1912. About thirty delegates from twenty Missouri cities attended. The discussion centered about the necessity for a constitutional convention in order that the smaller cities of Missouri might get the needed relief from present constitutional restraints. Practically all the constitutional amendments seeking to give this relief have been defeated through the indifference of the electorate.

The delegates also favored a law providing for a non-partisan board of public utilities with power to regulate fares and service of all public service corporations. The delegates pledged themselves to work for the enactment of a law giving cities and towns power to adopt the commission form of government. The following officers were reëlected for another year: president, Samuel D. Hodgdon, Webster Groves; secretary, Sydney J. Roy, Hannibal.

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The Tennessee Municipal League was successfully launched on January 16. Twenty-two mayors of cities and towns were present, and many questions of vital municipal interest were discussed. Dr. A. D. Martin, of Lebanon, led the discussion on a bill enabling all Tennesee towns to adopt commission government if they so desire. A committee was appointed to draft and work for the passage of such a bill. A good roads committee was appointed, and the good roads movement in Tennessee endorsed. The mayors also favored a movement to provide for more tuberculosis hospitals in Tennessee, and it was urged that the state do as much as possible to stamp out the white plague. The following officers were elected: president, Mayor H. F. Howse, of Nashville; secretary and treasurer J. W. Horton, of Tullahoma.

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West Virginia Mayors.—Responding to a call of Mayor Chapman of Huntingdon, the mayors of thirty cities of West Virginia met in convention at Charleston and the Municipal League of West Virginia, the first organization of its kind in the history of the state, came into existence. Municipal control of public service corporations was strongly advocated by Mayor Chapman. He also favored a law granting the right to municipalities to regulate such corporations. Mayor Chapman was elected permanent chairman of the organization, and Mayor W. H. Garnett, of Hinton, was elected secretary.

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The Arkansas Municipal League, the outcome of a conference of mayors, city attorneys and aldermen, came into existence on January 16. The object of this conference was the framing of legislation permitting municipalities to issue bonds for improvements. A committee was appointed to prepare a constitution and by-laws.

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The State League of Utah Municipalities held its seventh annual convention on January 10, 11, at American Fork. Addresses were given on necessary legislation on liquor, public health, moral questions, and good roads.

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The Mayors' Association of Connecticut held a midwinter meeting in the office of Mayor Cheney of Hartford. Among the subjects considered was that of the practicability of a municipal survey of the administrative practices of of Connecticut cities and especially of Hartford.

Clyde L. King.[1]

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The Mayors' Society of New Jersey is a new organization designed to advance all the policies that may be of benefit to the various municipalities of the state. Concerning the work of the Society Mayor Donnelly of Trenton writes:

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[1] Of the University of Pennsylvania.

We believe that by regular meetings and the resultant interchange of thought each city will receive the advantage of becoming familiar with the policies that have been found beneficial in neighboring cities. We also draft and support legislation that is needed by any of the cities, and do so with the view of giving each city just what it needs without encumbering other cities whose needs are different. This society has already gone on record as of favoring the abolition of grade crossings; the entire expense to be borne by the railroad. We have fought for this measure during the past two sessions of the legislature and believe we are about to gain a notable victory in this respect. We have also gone on record as favoring absolute home rule for New Jersey municipalities giving each city the right to look after its own requirements. We are also in back of the bill giving municipalities a uniform system of accounting, a uniform system of purchasing, and arranging for a uniform system of issuing bonds in contract work. We have also advocated establishing headquarters in Trenton, and the employment of a permanent secretary for research work to ascertain advantages of the various forms of municipal government that are in vogue in American cities, and to keep records of the society for the benefit of those who want to learn what various cities of the state are accomplishing.

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St. Louis's Federation of Federations is a central committee made up of representatives of the Central Trades and Labor Union, the School Patrons Alliance, the Central Council of Social Agencies, the Central Council of Civic Organizations, the Federation of Catholic Societies, the General Jewish Council, the Federation of Churches, the Council of Women's Organizations, and the Council of Business Organizations.

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Port Officials.—At the suggestion Calvin Tomkins, dock commissioner of New York, George W. Norris, director of docks of Philadelphia, and Hugh Bancroft, director of the port of Boston, a conference of harbor officials was held in New York, December 9 and 10, 1912, with the result that the National Association of Port Officials was organized. This is the first attempt that has been made to bring about coöperation between the harbor officials of the different ports of the United States, with a view to an exchange of information as to the best and most scientific development of harbor facilities. It was decided to hold conferences annually, to exchange information relative to port construction, maintenance and operation, and to formulate as far as possible recommendations for uniform policies and the standardization of port facilities.

Colonel Tomkins was elected president; Colonel Goethals, of the Panama Canal, first vice-president; Alexander R. Smith, of New York, secretary and H. C. Gahn of Cleveland, treasurer.

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Cincinnati and Indianapolis.—Combining the energy and enthusiasm of the younger Commercial Association with 1500 members with the prestige and solidity of the Chamber of Commerce, Cincinnati is to have one of the largest and most solidly financed and powerful commercial bodies in the United States. In Indianapolis a similar consolidation movement is on foot. A committee representing the several commercial bodies including the Commercial Club and the Chamber of Commerce is at work.

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The Municipal Association of Cleveland has changed its name to the Civic League of Cleveland. There has been no change in the membership or officers. This action was taken to prevent misunderstanding resulting from confusing the association with the various municipal undertakings in the city, also because the newspapers had gotten into the habit of calling the organization the "Muny."

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Grand Rapids Junior Association of Commerce.—The Grand Rapids Junior Association of Commerce, was organized on October 5, with a membership in the neighborhood of two hundred, for a year of study and work in the industrial, commercial and civic problems of Grand Rapids. The movement ought to bring about a closer relationship between the public schools and the business community.

VI. EDUCATIONAL AND ACADEMIC

The Progressive Municipal Service.—In its municipal phase, the Progressive Service has undertaken an application to local conditions of the scheme of its national organization. The experiment is an interesting one, extending as it does to boroughs and towns no less than to cities. Under the administrative board of the party executive committee, a committee has general charge, through a chief of service. From this head, the service radiates into two bureaus: that of education, and that of legislative reference. There are four general departments: Social and industrial justice, conservation, popular government, cost of living and corporation control. Both the bureaus and the departments have their appropriate subdivisions. The idea has been to extend this scheme in it entirety to municipal progressive service organizations. The municipal, borough or town service committees operate through local chiefs of service. In the local organizations there are the same bureaus, and the same general departments, with their appropriate subcommittees.

Its operation may be illustrated, in the case of cities, by the example of the New York County Progressive service organization, New York County and the Borough of Manhattan having the same boundaries. Under the general charge of education and publicity committees, corresponding to the education and legislative reference bureaus of the national scheme, there are fourteen subcommittees, covering the recruiting, training and placing of speakers; matter of housing and congestion problems; markets; licenses; police department and board of education, city and state officials and the conduct of their offices; the board of aldermen, their records and votes on important questions; local and auxiliary organizations and the organization of clubs among the foreign population; poll watchers and elections workers, to insure honesty in elections; finance and printing. Every sphere of political and social service activity is covered. The organization is as complete and as thorough as the national organization, and even more detailed.

In the case of towns, Greenwich, Connecticut, may serve as an example of the application of this general idea. There, the Greenwich Progressive Club acts through a service committee, following the model of the national service.

The activities touching municipal problems are not, however, confined to furnishing a scheme for local organizations, nor even to encouraging and assisting in the establishment of such organizations. Recently, a draft of a civil service law for cities, prepared under the auspices of the National Civil Service Reform League, was secured for the use of the Progressive Party of St. Louis with the idea that it might be incorporated into the platform of the Party in that city.

Paxton Hibben.

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Cincinnati Municipal Editor.—For the purpose of editing the annual city departmental reports, the executive department of Cincinnati has called to its assistance a municipal editor who is officially known as inspector for the mayor. Mayor Hunt rightly believes that the city's reports can be made interesting to the public and still be a succinct accounting of the work of the city departments for the year; and it is his intention to eliminate all unintelligible and unimportant statistics, to put the tables and figures that are used in a form that will be readily comprehended by the average reader, and especially to make the introductory and explanatory remarks something more than mere perfunctory statements.

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A Municipal Newspaper in Dresden.—It is an interesting fact that a newspaper is owned and administered by Dresden, the property having been bequeathed to the municipality. In 1856, Dr. J. Guentz, publisher of the Dresdener Anzeiger and proprietor of an advertising bureau, willed said bureau and the right of publishing the Anzeiger to the city as a special foundation for the common welfare, under the condition that the profits be used for beautifying Dresden and for charitable purposes. In 1895, C. Blochmann, who had printed the Anzeiger since 1848 enlarged the foundation by the gift of his well equipped printing establishment. The annual profits of the united foundations now amount to about $60,000.

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National Municipal League Prizes for 1913.—The Baldwin prize for this year was for the best essay on the subject of "The Best Sources of City Revenue." The judges are George C. Sikes, secretary of the Chicago bureau of efficiency, and Dr. LeGrand Powers of the census bureau. The school prize is devoted to "The Milk Supply in My City," for which an elaborate outline was prepared by M. N. Baker, chairman of the executive committee of the National Municipal League. The interest in this prize has been so unique and widespread and the treatment of it so suggestive that Mr. Baker will present a brief article on it in the July issue of the National Municipal Review. The judges are Prof. Selskar M. Gunn of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology and John Spargo, of Yonkers, N. Y. The subject of the Cincinnati prize is "The Best Charter for Cincinnati." The judges are Prof. Robert C. Brooks of Swarthmore College and A. J. Freiberg of the Cincinnati bar.

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Public Control of Vocational Education.—At the recent Philadelphia convention of the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, the even progress of this movement was slightly jarred by a division of opinion as to whether the control of vocational education shall rest with the public school authorities or be turned over to a new body entirely separated from the school department.

Several able addresses advocated new departments both in the state and municipal management of vocational education. It is fair to say, however, that the prevailing sentiment of the convention, while favoring a separate administration of vocational schools, nevertheless insisted on some positive articulation between the public school system and any system of vocational education.

Divergence of opinion as to the best form of control for this new type of training is natural enough, arising as it does from a common disbelief in the efficacy of vocational instruction under academic auspices. There is experience available, however, in this country which throws light on the problem of control. Massachusetts has had its experience with a dual system and is now convinced that while different motives, buildings, aims, equipment, and even budget must be applied to a system of practical education, still a centralized and a coördinating authority must be in possession of the entire field of education. This is an essential in a democratically supported school system.

MEYER BLOOMFIELD.[1]

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Winston-Salem High School Boys Making Economic Survey of City.—As a first step in an industrial survey of the city by the board of trade, the boys in the department of government and economics of the High School of Winston-Salem, N. C., will be set to work under the direction of the secretary of the Board of Trade to gather industrial statistics for 1912. This is considered an advanced step in training the boys for citizenship by giving them an opportunity to study at close range the industrial situation of their home city.

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[1] Of the Boston Vocation Bureau.

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The Journal of Social and Civic Chicago is the title of a monthly publication issued in the "interests of good citizenship" for the coöperation of the sundry social and civic agencies of Chicago, particularly those which are sustained by the city. The February issue which is a fair sample of the publication, discusses such questions as why the park districts of Chicago should be consolidated, and the appointment of police women, as well as giving the news of the various coöperating agencies.

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Baltimore has begun the publication of a semi-monthly municipal journal with A. S. Goldsborough as managing editor. The first issue appeared January 15, and consisted of 12 pages.

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Greater Portland is the title of the official organ of the Greater Portland (Oregon) Plans Association, the first number of which was issued February 1.

VII. SOCIAL AND MISCELLANEOUS

Public Health Notes.—*A notable mosquito reduction* campaign was waged in Essex County, N. J., during the summer of 1912. Probably more was done in the town of Montclair than elsewhere in the county, for the town was first in the campaign, the town council, at the request of the local board of health, appropriating $2000 for mosquito fighting as early as January. Later on, the state legislature, prompted in large measure by the North Jersey Mosquito Extermination League, authorized the creation of mosquito commissions in every county of the state, the appointments to be made by the county court and money to be provided by county boards of freeholders, to such extent as they saw fit. The act, it will be seen, was permissive, not mandatory. A commission was created in Essex County and $75,000 placed at its disposal. The commission engaged inspectors and assigned them to districts. Montclair employed six inspectors for some months. Some of these were "taken over" and paid by the county commission, but they remained under the direction of the Montclair health officer, Chester H. Wells. The plan of campaign in Montclair was to divide the town (about six square miles in area, with a population of 23,000) into six districts, and have each district thoroughly gone over once in each week or two. Under the Montclair sanitary code the maintenance of mosquito breeding places is a nuisance. Public notice was served that if mosquitoes were found breeding on any premises a second time the property owner would be prosecuted. Any breeding places found were either abated by getting rid of the water or else they were oiled as a temporary measure. The net results of the campaign cannot, of course, be stated in exact terms, but the general consensus of citizens in Montclair was that the mosquitoes were materially less in numbers in 1912 than in previous years. Some of this may have been due to natural causes far beyond the control of man, but it seems only fair to assume that the campaign against the pests was in considerable measure a success. It should be added that besides earlier local work for the elimination of breeding places in Montclair and other municipalities scattered through New Jersey the state has, for a number of years past, done extensive drainage work on river and sea coast marshes. By far the greater part of the notorious Jersey mosquitoes are mere pests, and not malaria spreaders, a fact which raises a question as to the extent to which mosquito reduction in that state is a health function.

The state work has been done under the state entomologist and the county work of 1912 under independent commissions.

The Health Department of Asheville, N. C. is one of the most wide awake departments in the country, judging from the account it gives of itself in its monthly bulletin. The health board consists of the mayor, the city engineer, the chairman of the finance committee of the board of aldermen, and four physicians. There is a health officer, a sanitary inspector, a meat and milk inspector, and a sewer and plumbing inspector, besides which the water superintendent is listed as one of the executive officers of the board. All this, as well as the bulletin, speaks well for a city of 20,000 people.

The International Milk Dealers Association was organized five years ago. Each of its 43 members has subscribed to a platform which declares for an improved milk supply and a lower infant mortality. The association has employed Dr. Charles E. North, of New York City, as consulting sanitarian.

A Municipal Tuberculin Dispensary, for administering tuberculin to consumptives, is being operated by Portsmouth, England, under the direction of Dr. Hilda Clarke. A building was erected in the center of the town, near the town hall. It is about 20 by 35 feet in plan, with waiting and consulting rooms, at either end and dressing rooms between, besides a laboratory and toilet rooms. Plans for the building were drawn by the borough engineer's department. During 1911 a total of 445 persons were registered as applying for treatment, besides which some would-be applicants were turned away. Of 368 persons who were examined 291 proved to be tubercular and 216 were thought to be susceptible of improvement by treatment. A floor plan and perspective view of the dispensary building, with some particulars not here given, may be found in *The Surveying and Housing World* for September 21, 1912.

A Reorganization of the Bureau of Records of the New York City health department, with subdivisions for records proper, for research and for publicity, was strongly urged in 1911 by an advisory committee of statisticians. This recommendation is again urged, with a number of others, in a "Report on Vital Statistics and Health Reports of New York City," prepared by E. H. Lewinski-Corwin, executive committee of the public health, hospital and budget committee of the New York Academy of Medicine, and published in the *Medical Record* of November 23, 1912. Owing largely to lack of funds, the present Bureau of Records is not efficiently and sufficiently manned, its reports are so long delayed as to lose a large part of their value, and the reports are inadequate—particularly in general public appeal.

M. N. BAKER.[1]

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A Suggestion for the Improvement of the Liquor Traffic.—There are indications in various parts of the country that the brewers are contemplating a severance of their hitherto more or less close relations with the dealers in distilled liquors.

At present this is not an easy matter because saloon keepers get larger profits from the sale of distilled liquors than from sales of beer; but the activity of the Prohibitionists and of the Anti-Saloon Society seems to have aroused a feeling among the brewers that their own trade has received blame which rightly belongs to the other branch of the business. The connection of the brewing interests with the saloons is so close that a general change of heart in this respect would be a factor of importance in aid of the temperance movement.

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[1] President, board of health, Montclair, N. J.

A prominent brewer in Buffalo reports that he has successfully tried the experment of abolishing the bar in a large saloon under his control and has dropped the free lunch and somewhat improved and enlarged the bill-of-fare, making a moderate charge for all viands furnished. He reports that the profit made in this way balanced the loss of the special bar trade, and that, incidentally, the result has been an increase in the amount of beer sold, and a marked diminution in the sale of distilled liquors. It would seem that there is a subtle connection between the American bar and the use of distilled liquors. This appears to the writer a hopeful straw in the direction of improvement in the liquor traffic.

Camillus G. Kidder.

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Cleveland and Seattle Centralize Social and Philanthropic Agencies.—As a result of the efforts of the Cleveland chamber of commerce, the philanthropic agencies of Cleveland have been brought together in a federation for charity and philanthropy which is to serve as a clearing-house for the affiliated associations and their donors. Under the plans of the federation, the innumerable appeals made each year by the individual agencies will be pooled into one which will be made by the federation. Tags, tickets, benefit bazaars, fairs, entertainments and balls will be done away with. The management of the federation will be in the hands of a board of thirty members: ten elected by the philanthropic agencies; ten elected by donors making themselves responsible for definite contributions to the funds of the agencies through the federation; and ten appointed by the president of the chamber of commerce. In Seattle, a central council of social agencies has been created for the purpose of promoting fellowship among the agencies, social intelligence. and social efficiency through the prevention of duplication.

Wisconsin Social Center Movement.—Under the stimulative influence of Carl Beck, social center director of the public schools of Superior, the social center movement in Wisconsin is pushing beyond the limits of the city and is invading the rural districts. Not only is Superior to have an organized system of civic and ward improvement clubs, constantly supplied by a lecture bureau of local talent and assisted by a clipping bureau on civic, social and municipal matters, but the rural schools of the state will become the social centers where farmer' clubs will meet weekly or monthly to consider rural problems such as education, road improvement, county taxation and other questions, which today are largely settled at the county seat. A large exposition representing all of the organizations and industries of the city is now being planned.

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Our Country and the Immigrant.—New York City and Mt. Vernon are fostering movements for assisting the immigrant in preparation for citizenship. These movements aim at a better adaptation of school and library facilities to the needs of the immigrant and creation of opportunities for the immigrant to hear in his own language simple, plain talks upon his problems in this country and the institutions of his new homeland.

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Negro Segregation.—The St. Louis Civic League has adopted a resolution opposing the proposed ordinance segregating the negroes of St. Louis. The committee in reporting on the matter declared:

> Our committee is unanimously of the opinion that the problem of the relation of white and colored people cannot be solved by crystallizing prejudices into legislation. The proposed law frequently would prevent colored people from improving their condition by moving into better neighborhoods. We cannot believe that any broad minded American can regard the legal segregation of races as American or Christian.

VIII. PERSONAL MENTION

Reginald H. Thompson, City Engineer of Seattle.—In the rapid development of western communities from smaller settlements into fully developed metropolitan cities, particularly those of the Pacific coast, the individuality of the small group of citizens who directed their affairs has done more in many instances to make for the success of these communities than their geographic situation. A marked incident of personality dominating the growth of community life is that of R. H. Thompson, who for many years had in hand the destinies of Seattle, the great metropolis and sea port of Puget Sound. During the period with which Mr. Thompson was connected with the Seattle, the most unprecedented development ccurred from a small town of several thousand, to a community of 250,000 people covering an area of 57 square miles, with a fully developed sewer system; a water supply unequalled for its purity and volume; 177 miles of street pavement; a municipal electric power plant of 14,000 horse power; a model building code, etc.

Mr. Thompson was born at Hanover, Indiana, March 20, 1856. He received his education at Hanover College, taking the full classical and scientific courses, graduating in 1877. In 1880 Mr. Thompson came to Seattle and in the fall of 1881 to 1883 served as deputy surveyor for the city and deputy county surveyor for King County. Through his work as surveyor of the city from 1884 to 1886 he obtained accurate and valuable information of the varied topography of the city. For three years he was assistant engineer of a railroad project east of Lake Washington, during which period he spent a portion of his time in the city of Spokane. On finishing his railroad work in 1889 he opened a private office in the city of Seattle and engaged in town plat work and mineral surveying.

In May 1892 he became city engineer for Seattle, which position he held until November, 1911, when he entered the service of the Canadian government as engineer for Strathcona Park, Vancouver Island.

During the latter part of Mr. Thompson's connection with the engineering department he was subjected to constant criticism by one of the Seattle daily papers. This criticism was always derogatory and exceedingly vindicative in character. He had at one time drawn upon himself the disfavor of the editor and combined with the element of discontent of those endeavoring to obtain special favors this, made it exceedingly difficult to continue the broad constructive policy that the city was then pursuing. Mr. Thompson however, ignored these criticisms and continued his work undisturbed.

Quoting from Mr. Dimock, the present city engineer:

> I think Mr. Thompson's success has been due to the fact that he is a tireless, patient and persistent worker, always seeking to extend his knowledge on all topics which concern a city's growth; second, that he has had ample time through the early years of his administration for a thorough study of the problem of Seattle's future. He came to believe intensely in the fact that Seattle was to become a great city. With absolute faith in its future, he worked steadily and tenaciously toward his ideals with a definite program, regardless of obstacles and undismayed by temporary reverses. No doubt his vision of what the city should be enlarged and grew from time to time as he had opportunities for study and for travel, but he had always in his mind a well defined general program, to the development of which he steadily worked. He has also a practical sagacity and knowledge of human nature which enabled him to impress others with his views and use them as instruments for the carry-out of his plans. I should say that these two things—first, his ideal, and second, his practical sagacity in the working out of these ideals, are his leading characteristics.

It was in attacking the problem of creating an adequate business area that Mr. Thompson perhaps deserves most credit. The work was of such magnitude that it took many years to mature, and unless there had been a definite program and a strong hand, changing policies and avaricious contractors would have made the cost of this work so great that there is very little doubt that it would never have been completed. Mr. Thompson always insisted that the main traffic of the city would be forced by virtue of its topography to travel in a north and south direction. He sought consistently to provide such arteries as would open up the city in these directions. The great Northern Railway Company at one time sought to build its terminal yards in such a manner as to prevent the possibility of extending these arterial highways, and through Mr. Thompson's efforts Mr. James J. Hill was induced to modify his plans and First, Fourth and Sixth Avenues which have now become the great traffic streets of the city were left open. The city to the north of the then business area, was obstructed by a hill 135 feet high, called Denny Hill. First Avenue was graded in 1890 and no further work was done due to the panic of 1893 until about ten years later, when a regrade of Second Avenue was agitated. The success of this project from a real estate stand-point lead to a much vaster scheme of regrade, including Third, Fourth and Fifth Avenues, and this is known as the Denny Hill regrade area, and these avenues and streets are now paved and lighted. At the same time was undertaken the Jackson Street and Dearborn Street regrade, which latter undertaking was made a part of the Harbor Island development which used the material for filling, the work being accomplished by means of hydraulic sluicing. The total area thus regraded is approximately 620 acres, and is ideally located for down town business development.

Perhaps more than anything else the development of the Cedar River water, light and power system brought Mr. Thompson into the public eye. There is no doubt that other men in his department and in the affairs of the city assisted him greatly in his work, but he was the master-mind which correlated the data and he was able to keep the execution of the work along definite and constructive lines. In 1890 there developed strong opposition to the city's acquiring and developing its own system; private companies then, as are now, endeavored to prevent the city from developing these projects.

Mr. Thompson, to quote from Mr. Dimock, "threw himself heart and soul into the fight for municipal ownership, and he carried the day." The existing private company at that time was charging from $1.50 to $2.50 a month for a single water tap without sprinkling privileges. The rate now is 50 cents per month. A few years later a charter amendment was secured with the necessary ordinances providing for the installation of the Cedar River light and power plant. The effect of the installation of this system has made a reduction in the rate for residence lighting from 20 cents per kilowat to about 5 cents per kilowat. There is no doubt that some reduction would have been made if the municipal plant had not been installed, but this municipal plant put into the hands of the people the power of controlling and regulating rates that in no other way could it have been done so advantageously. The result has been that the citizens of Seattle are now paying for their light about one-half of what other people are paying by the coast cities supplied by private enterprises. In all these undertakings whether street paving, sewer contracts, or contracts for the regrading, no charges have ever been substantiated of misappropriation of funds. The work has been carried on uniformly with foresight, and has been executed with thoroughness unprecedented in the works of a public character in American municipalities. Quoting further from Mr. Dimock "It is no small tribute to Mr. Thompson's rugged integrity that Seattle should have been free from any scandals in its many works department."

There were no projects of magnitude undertaken by the city with which Mr. Thompson was not connected. He was very largely consulted during the progress of the bill creating a port commission whose function it was to develop the port facilities and establish equitable relationship between public and private enterprises. In March, 1910 a charter amendment was passed by the city creating a plans commission, whose duty it was to procure plans for the arrangement of the city with a view to such expansion as may meet probable future demands; taking into consideration the improvement and changes in public utilities and lines of transportation by surface, underground and water, the widths and grades of arterial highways necessary for the best treatment of the city, location for public buildings and municipal decorations, etc.

Mr. Thompson was appointed from the board of public works as one of the 21 plan commissioners. He worked untiringly for the preparation of this report and gave his unqualified support in furthering its adoption. The same elements which opposed Mr. Thompson, opposed the adoption of this report, which unfortunately was voted down by the people. The Seattle Times attacked the report and stated that it would cost the city $100,000,000 and bankrupt its citizens. As no newspaper came to the active support and as the body of citizens who understood the importance of city planning was small, there was no way of informing the voters. A small group of advocates for the plans including Mr. Thompson gave illustrated talks at all the improvement clubs and made as strenuous a campaign as it was possible in support of its adoption. The plan if adopted would have taken the control of the city's growth out of the hands of a few interested property owners and put it in the hands of the people. Mr. Thompson was always found on the side of the broader citizenship and with those who were working for the general civic development. Carl F. Gould.

Travis H. Hoke who has been assistant secretary of the St. Louis Civic League since January, 1912, will be the director of the publicity bureau of the Conference of Federations, which represents practically all the larger federations of associations in St. Louis. Among the organizations supporting the publicity bureau are the Civic League, the Federation of Churches, the School Patrons Alliance, the Central Council of Civic Organizations, the Central Council of Social Agencies, the Federation of Catholic Societies and the Social Service Conference. The Conference will issue a publication *Public Affairs*.

*

Reginald Mott Hull has resigned the secretaryship of the Citizens' Taxpayers Association of Cambridge, Mass., and has gone into business. He has been elected a member of the executive committee and so will keep in touch with the work which he has so successfully managed for four years. His successor as secretary is Donald Justin Lynn.

*

Robert E. Kenyon has retired as general secretary of the Chicago Association of Commerce to become superintendent of public service of Cook County. As such he will make the purchases for all the institutions of the county, some half dozen in number, amounting to about $3,000,000 a year.

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Clinton Rogers Woodruff is taking the course of Prof. Henry Jones Ford in Municipal Government at Princeton during the present semester. Professor Henry Jones Ford has been granted a leave of absence to study political conditions through the country.

*

Rev. Alan Pressley Wilson, a priest of the Episcopal Church, has been elected president of the Lykens-Wiconisco Board of Trade, Lykens, Pa. It is the first time in the history of Pennsylvania that a clergyman has been thus honored.

*

Dr. S. G. Lowrie of the University of Cincinnati has, at the request of Governor Cox, been granted a leave of absence so that he may work with the Ohio legislature in the founding of a legislative reference bureau.

*

Dr. Clyde L. King of the University of Pennsylvania has been delivering a series of lectures before the New Century Club of Philadelphia on "Some of Philadelphia's Governmental Problems."

*

Albert de Roode, formerly civic secretary of the Civil Service Reform Association of New York, has been appointed by Mayor Gaynor to take charge of the examining board of plumbers.

*

Dr. Frank A. Wolfe of the federal bureau of standards, Washington, D. C., has been appointed chief of the department of social economy for the Panama Pacific Exposition.[1]

*

Robert D. Jenks of Philadelphia was elected chairman of the council of the National Civil Service Reform League in succession to the Hon. Charles J. Bonaparte.

*

E. H. Bennett of Chicago is now engaged on city plans for Brooklyn, New York and Detroit. Plans for Minneapolis and Portland, Oregon, have been finished.

John Nolen of Cambridge, Mass., is working on plans for the following cities: Scranton, Pa., Erie, Pa.; Schenectady, N. Y.; New London,. Conn.; Keokuk, Iowa.

*

Robert Catherwood, president of the Chicago Civil Service Reform Association, has been appointed a member of the Chicago civil service commission.

*

Mrs. D. C. McCan, president of the Friday Morning Club of Los Angeles, has been appointed a member of the Los Angeles civil service commission.

*

Prof. Charles E. Merriam of the University of Chicago is a candidate for nomination as alderman at the coming municipal election in Chicago.

*

Mrs. Melville F. Johnston, of Richmond, Indiana, has been made chairman of the committee on art of the General Federation of Women's Clubs.

*

Rev. Cyrus Flint Stimson of Waterville, Maine, has been elected secretary of the American Playground and Recreation Association.

*

Everett P. Wheeler has been elected president of the New York Civil Service Reform Association to succeed the late Silas W. Burt.

*

Mayo Fesler, secretary of the Cleveland Civic League, has been elected secretary of the Cleveland charter commission.

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Scott R. Dekins has been appointed assistant secretary of the St. Louis Civic League.

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[1] For information concerning the scope of this work see NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. ii, supplement to the January issue, p. 33.

DEPARTMENT OF LEGISLATION AND JUDICIAL DECISIONS

EDITED BY JOHN A. LAPP

Legislative Reference Department of the Indiana State Library

RICHARD W. MONTAGUE, ESQ., Portland, Ore.

In charge of Judicial Decisions

Constitutional Amendments.—During the year 1912, 203 amendments to state constitutions were submitted to the people of the various states for ratification. Of this number, 118 were adopted. Of the whole number, 203, were fifteen relating to cities and towns alone; ten relating to cities, towns, counties and other minor civil divisions, and seven relating to all elective officers in the state including cities.

An examination of the fifteen relating specifically to cities shows that the three which failed of adoption were as folows: Arkansas, permitting cities and towns of more than 1000 population to issue bonds for municipal improvements; Minnesota, granting to cities and villages the right to frame and amend their charters; Missouri, increasing the constitutional tax rate in certain specified municipalities.

Among the twelve relating to cities and towns alone which received popular approval, seven related to home rule charters. Colorado extended the privilege of home rule charter making already granted to a limited extent;[1] Nebraska and Texas granted the same to all places of over 5000 inhabitants; Michigan untangled a peculiar constitutional situation by expressly permitting cities and villages to amend existing charters without a general revision of the charter through convention; Virginia adopted an amendment which granted a measure of home rule, but any such charter "must be such as the general assembly may deem best;" Ohio in its series of thirty-three amendments adopted in September, 1912, dealt at length with municipalities, a subject much vexed of late in that state. Municipal corporations were divided into cities and villages, the line of demarcation being fixed at 5000 inhabitants.[2]

Of the six remaining amendments relating specifically to municipalities, one in Georgia relates to the abolishing of justice courts in certain cities, two in Virginia to the election of revenue commissioners and treasurer in cities, one in South Carolina permits a specified town to exceed the constitutional debt limit of 8 per cent and two others in the same state permit specified cities and towns to levy special assessments to pay for public improvements.

Ten amendments of the year apply alike to cities and to the state or some other civil division. Seven such relate to finance. Of the whole number, ten, five were defeated. Among those adopted was one (Arizona) regulating the debts of cities, counties and other local divisions; one (Wisconsin) extending the time of extinguishing the debt of certain cities and counties; one (Louisiana) relating to public improvement bonds of parishes, cities and various minor divisions; one (Arizona) permitting the state and cities to engage in industrial enterprises; and one (Wisconsin) authorizing the state and cities to acquire lands. The defeated five included two (Louisiana) giving parishes and the cities authority to exempt certain kind of property from taxation; one (Utah) changing the limit of indebtedness for counties, cities and towns; one (California) for the consolidation of county and city governments in certain cases and one (California) extending the home rule principle in matters of taxation by permitting counties, cities and other local taxing authorties to levy taxes for local purposes according to any system which they may see fit to adopt and to classify property for purposes of taxation provided that such taxes be uniform for each class and that no tax to meet future expense or indebtedness shall be levied on property reserved for state taxation.

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[1] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. ii, p. 121

[2] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW vol. i, p. 715.

Cities were also affected by amendments voted on in seven states and adopted in five, providing for the removal of public officers in general by means of the recall. The states ratifying these were Arizona, Colorado, Idaho, Nevada, and Washington, Those rejecting were Arkansas and Louisiana. The Idaho, Louisiana and Washington amendments did not extend the recall to judges.

The most salient feature of the year progress in the field under review are the larger proportion of the whole number of amendments devoted to the cause of municipal home rule, and the almost universal ratification of such proposals when made.

Frank G. Bates.[1]

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Governors' Messages, 1913.—In the messages of the governors of the various states transmitted to their legislatures at the opening of the sessions of 1913, the affairs of cities receive a fair measure of consideration. Three subjects stand out distinctly as commanding attention: public utility regulation, municipal home rule and municipal finance. While a subject state-wide in scope public utility regulation is obviously of especial interest to cities. The governors of no less than seventeen states made recommendations on the subject looking toward either the inauguration of the policy of utility regulation by commission or some amendment of existing laws on the subject.

In the following states the creation of a commission is called for: Iowa, Indiana, Maine, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Missouri, Pennsylvania and West Virginia. In Michigan and Montana it is suggested that the powers be conferred in the railroad commission, and in Idaho combined with the tax commission. Two commissions are suggested in Illinois, one for Chicago and one for the rest of the state. Among the recommendations for the extension of powers of existing authorities are these: New Jersey, to give discretionary power in the matter of grade crossing abolition; Ohio, to give power to make a valuation of physical properties, and Rhode Island, to include not only the valuation of physical properties, but to supervise security issues, require uniform accounting and inspection of equipment. Extensions of the power of the public service commission of Wilmington is suggested in Delaware.

Municipal home rule suggestions take these forms: New Jersey, to give wider range of freedom in local affairs; Delaware, to give Wilmington a new charter with extended powers of home rule; Michigan, to give greater liberty in respect to the initiative, referendum and recall in the general city law; Missouri, to give to the larger cities the right to select their own excise and police officers; New York, to give home rule to cities of the second and third classes and recommending a cessation of legislative tinkering with city charters; Pennsylvania, to give a "larger measure of home rule and greater freedom of action" for third class cities; Ohio, to enact laws under the recent constitutional amendment permitting to cities a choice of either the business manager, commission or short ballot federal plans of government.

That the importance of uniformity in accounting supervision of accounts is forcing itself upon public attention more widely is shown by the following recommendations: Illinois and New Jersey, that uniform systems of accounting be established; South Dakota, that the existing accounting law be extended to include county and municipal offices; Oregon, that the office of auditor of public accounts be established; Rhode Island, that not only uniform accounting and reports be required, but that, following the example of Massachusetts, audit of town accounts be made on request of the municipality and that supervision be extended over the form and issue of town notes. The governor of Washington recommends the abolition of the bureau of inspection and supervision of public offices and the appointment of a committee of accountants to devise a system of uniform accounts for counties and cities. The work of supervision was to be placed under the state auditor. In Connecticut it is suggested that general borrowing power be conferred on cities and boroughs within a fixed limit on referendum. Non-partisan nominations in cities are recommended in both Pennsylvania and Washington; commission government to be made permissive for second class cities in Missouri; measures for greater efficiency of civil service regulations in cities of the second and third classes in New York; the annulling of all exclusive franchises existing and their prohibition in the future in South Carolina; the making effective an existing law for the censorship of moving picture films in Pennsylvania; the establishment of municipal museums of safety appliances in New York, and the appointment of city, police, borough and town judges by the governor with the confirmation of the legislature instead of by election in Connecticut, are the remaining recommendations in the field of city government.

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[1] University of Indiana, Bloomington, Indiana.

FRANK G. BATES.[1]

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Traffic Regulations and the Use of Streets by Pedestrians.—The safety of the streets for pedestrians has been the subject of legislation both specific and general by large cities, and in one or two of the larger municipalities special traffic policemen are assigned to the care of the pedestrian traffic aside from the regular vehicular traffic.

There are a great many regulations that are common to all cities. Vehicles are not allowed to be ridden or driven on or across any sidewalk except a regular marked crossing. The speed limit varies in certain districts and at special times of the day. The specified limit for public bridges is four miles per hour, while for the congested districts the limit of speed on the regular streets is from six to ten miles. In other districts the limit runs as high as eighteen miles per hour, except for physicians, the city fire department, and the hospital service. Motor vehicles must be provided with gongs or some sufficient alarm signal and all vehicles must be provided with lights between sunset and sunrise.

The board of police commissioners in American cities has supervision of all traffic. Pedestrians and drivers of vehicles and cars must at all times comply with any direction by hand or voice of any member of the police force as to placing, stopping, starting, approaching or departing from any place.

Oakland, California, provides that no driver shall approach within four feet of the running board or lower step of any street or interurban car that may have stopped to take on or discharge passengers. St. Louis has considered a similar ordinance, but the traffic squad in the congested districts prevents vehicles passing stopped street cars as a matter of precaution.

A strict provision of the Oakland ordinance is the restriction of peddlers' carts or wagons for the use of vending merchandise. Such carts are not allowed to stand in any street or on any sidewalk.

Boston regulations are typical and guard the safety of people on the streets very well. The road-beds of highways are primarily intended for vehicles, but pedestrians have the right to cross them in safety, and drivers of vehicles must exercise all possible care not to injure them. Persons are urged to cross streets as nearly as possible at right angles preferably at regular crossings. This law adds greatly to safety, facilitates traffic and makes it much less difficult for the horses, which often have to be reined in suddenly and painfully in order to avoid careless and unthinking persons. Special efforts to expedite traffic on sidewalks directs pedestrians to keep to the right while walking and when stopping for any purpose to do so on the side near the curb and not in the way of a crossing.

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[1] University of Indiana.

The rules of Boston are both specific and general. The specific rules are intended to apply to the congested part of the city and are to govern in the streets and places referred to, while the general rules are intended to apply to all sections of the city. No vehicle, except in an emergency or to allow another vehicle or pedestrian to cross its way is allowed to stop in any public street except close to the curb, and near no intersection of a street. Vehicles can not be left standing in public streets for more than twenty minutes, except in case of a physician attending the sick, or a licensed cab or truck, when the owner holds a license from the board of street commissioners, authorizing him to occupy a part of the street for the sale of merchandise. Certain public streets and squares are specified as places for the exchange of merchandise. On certain specified streets no vehicle is allowed to stand for more than five minutes. The city is now considering a proposal submitted by automobile associations asking that parking places be established where vehicles may stand for a longer time than present traffic regulations allow, this for the benefit of the public who come to the business districts for shopping purposes.

There is an ordinance prohibiting the standing of people in the streets for a period exceeding five minutes at a time. Street crossings are numerous, being placed at every intersection of the street. Where the pavement is continuous there are no marked crossings. There are a number of streets designated as "one-way streets" and on these streets vehicles can move only in such direction as is specified.

Delivery of coal, ice, barrels or kegs, or the backing up of vehicles to the curb, collection of garbage, refuse, waste material, cleaning of cess-pools and opening of manholes is prohibited between 9 a.m. and 5 p.m.

Pittsburgh marks crossings on block pavements by large crossing stones but asphalt streets are not marked at the crossings. The director of public safety may specify streets and certain areas restricting the handling of certain materials and traffic as in the case just mentioned of Boston allowing certain exceptions in emergencies.

The traffic regulations of Chicago direct pedestrians to cross streets at regular crossings and at right angles. They should wait for the signal from the traffic policeman whenever near his station and move only in the direction of the traffic.

Horse-drawn vehicles have the right-of-way over power-driven vehicles, street cars excepted, they have the right-of-way between crossings over all other vehicles. Drivers of all vehicles proceeding upon the street car track are required to turn out upon signal from the motorman or conductor of the car. During blockades or stoppages a clear space of ten feet must be kept open between the cars opposite an alley or an intersection of the block if there be no alley. Drivers of vehicles overtaking street cars must exercise great care in passing not to interfere with or injure any passenger who may alight from the car. Vehicles and street cars must stop back of the cross-walk so as not to interfere with passengers or pedestrians. Drivers of all vehicles must sit in their vehicles so as to have a clear view of the traffic at all sides. No vehicle not in charge of a driver is allowed to stand in the business district between 6 a.m. and 7 p.m. for a period exceeding sixty minutes except in certain specified districts.

Horses are not allowed to be left unattended in any street unless securely tied or fastened. Automobiles are prohibited from standing in any business district for a period exceeding sixty minutes. Continuous pavement streets are not marked to show places of crossing.

A. J. Cunningham.[1]

* * *

Speed Regulations for Motor Vehicles. It has been said that owing to the large number of deaths occurring annually from vehicular, motor and transportation accidents the streets and highways of our cities have become more perilous than a battlefield. Most marked has been the increase in the number of automobile fatalities. In a message to the Chicago city council on May 13, Mayor Harrison called attention to the great increase in the number of automobile and motor cycle accidents, and suggested the advisability of more stringent regulations controlling the operation of automobiles and motor cycles within the city limits. Chicago mortality statistics show that in the year 1907 there were but 16 deaths due to automobile accidents while in 1911 the total number was 75, or an increase of 368 per cent. The number of deaths from this cause in New York City in 1911 was 159.

As a result of Mayor Harrison's suggestion the city council passed three ordinances designed to insure the safety of pedestrians and the fixing of responsibility for these accidents. The most important ordinance was one prohibiting operators of motor vehicles and motor cycles "upon overtaking any street car which has stopped for the purpose of discharging or taking on passengers to permit or cause said motor vehicle or motorcycle to pass or approach within ten feet of said car as long as the said car is so stopped or remains standing for the purpose of discharging or taking on passengers." The other ordinances provide (1) that "the light or lights illuminating or reflecting upon the number plate or plates with which a motor vehicle or motor cycle is equipped shall be controlled by a switch or similar device placed outside of such motor vehicle or motor cycle so as to be inaccessible to and beyond the control of any person riding therein or thereon, so that such switch or device controlling such light cannot be turned off by any occupant of such motor vehicle or any person upon such motor cycle while in motion," and (2) that "the license number plates in the rear of motor vehicles shall from sunset to one hour before sunrise be unobstructed, free from grease and dirt and plainly legible at a distance of 150 feet."

In New York City the special committee on speed regulations in a report made to the board of aldermen of July 2 found that the present city ordinances regulating speed are "antiquated, ineffective and inadequate." The ordinance regulating the speed of vehicles as reported by this committee provides (1) that no vehicle shall be driven at a speed or in a manner likely to endanger the life, limb or property of any person; (2) that the rate of speed shall not be greater than 15 miles per hour except on certain highways passing through sections undeveloped and sparsely settled where the rate shall be 18 and not to exceed 25 miles per hour; (3) that "upon approaching a bridge, or in turning a corner or intersecting public highways, or in passing a public school on school days between the hours of 8 o'clock a.m. and 4 o'clock p.m., the person operating, driving or propelling any vehicle subject to the provisions of section 1 of this article shall not proceed, nor shall the owner of any such vehicle driving thereon or therein, cause or permit the same to proceed at a rate of speed greater than 10 miles per hour, and in meeting, overtaking or approaching a street car which has been stopped for the purpose of receiving or discharging passengers, every such vehicle aforesaid shall be brought to a full stop at a point not less than six feet from such street passenger car, and shall not proceed and pass such street passenger car between said car and the near curb or sidewalk until such street passenger car shall have proceeded." In addition penalties to punish reckless drivers are provided.

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[1] Missouri School of Mines, Rolla, Missouri.

Detroit and Cleveland also have ordinances similar to that of Chicago requiring motor vehicles to come to a full stop whenever street cars are discharging or taking on passengers.

Frederick Rex.[1]

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Censorship of Moving Picture Films.—Certain municipalities have decided not to rely wholly on the decisions of such bodies as the national board of censorship, and have established or are trying to establish a system of legal re-publicity examination of moving picture films. Probably the most comprehensive and effective ordinance in force is that adopted in San Francisco, and reliable authorities report that its results have been beneficial. The ordinance provides for an advisory board, composed of five members, as follows: One member appointed by the mayor, one by the board of education, one by the police board, one by the society for the prevention of cruelty to children, and one by the moving picture exhibitors' association. This board must pass on all films intended for exhibition, and may prosecute violators of the ordinance. The board has the right of free entry to moving picture theatres. The censoring has been done by photograph but it is now proposed to run the films in the regular way before the board, a license fee of $1 for each film being provided to defray the expense of operator, room and machine.

Berkeley, California, handles the problem by providing for an advisory committee which may inspect moving picture exhibitions and prosecute exhibitors of improper films, but which does no actual pre-publicity censoring. The committee is composed of the chief of police, the truant officer and a third member appointed by the city council, and has the right of free entry to moving picture theatres. The wording of the ordinance follows very closely that of the San Francisco measure.

Seattle has a censorship board with little power, the right of free entry to theatres being denied. In Chicago the superintendent of police acts as censor. Permits are refused for improper films, and appeal may be made to the mayor whose ruling is final. The Chicago vice commission reports that this system has given good results in the way of eliminating the undesirable exhibitions. Detroit deals with the question in about the same way. In Pittsburgh the chief ordinance officer views most of the "first-run" pictures before they are exhibited.

The censorship question is at present receiving a great deal of attention in York. In 1912 an ordinance for the regulation of moving picture theatres, which provided for police censorship with appeal to the mayor, was defeated. Other similar measures have been proposed, and there are now a number of ordinances before the board of aldermen, dealing with the regulation of these theatres, and containing various provisions regarding censorship. One of these, the "Folks" ordinance, was passed almost unanimously by the board last December after various influences had caused the insertion of a censorship clause providing in the main as follows:

The bureau of license issues the permit for the exhibition of a motion picture but before such permit is issued the picture must be inspected and approved by a censor or censors authorized by the department of education from the teachers, examiners or supervising staff thereof, and a letter sent by the censor to the bureau fully describing the film in question. If the film is undesirable, the bureau of license must refuse to grant the permit. Appeal may be had to the Mayor. No charge is allowed for permits.

The ordinance was vetoed by Mayor Gaynor on account of this censorship section. The mayor expressed himself of the opinion that such censorship was not warranted by the condition of moving picture shows, that it might even work actual harm, that it was contrary to the principles of our government and, moreover, illegal. Regarding this latter point, the counsel for the emergency committee submitted a memorandum to the effect that moving pictures should and can be rendered subject to the right of the state to control stage performances. A hearing has been held by the board of aldermen on these proposed ordinances, but at the present writing no further action has been taken.

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[1] Assistant city statistician of Chicago.

In Kansas City, Missouri, the board of public welfare[1] has proposed an ordinance which provides for the examination of all moving pictures by an inspector of the Board before a permit for exhibition is granted. The board of public welfare itself would be the final judge in an appeal.

There has been some agitation in St. Louis on the censorship question, but no legislation has yet been actually brought before the municipal assembly, owing to difference of opinion as to who should constitute a censorship board. One proposition was to have the board composed of the superintendent of schools, a business man, representatives of the film companies and exhibitors, and the President of the council. At present, undesirable exhibitions are suppressed by the police on complaint.

In Baltimore an ordinance providing for film censorship was defeated in 1910.

In Canada, the Province of Quebec has established a board of censors, and no moving pictures may be shown anywhere in the province that have not been passed on by the board. The headquarters of the board will be in Montreal, where a hall will be provided for the exhibition and censoring of pictures. Expenses are to be paid from the proceeds of the tax on moving picture theatres.

Andrew Linn Bostwick.[2]

The Common Drinking Cup and the Common Towel.—The dangers of the propagation of disease through the use of the common drinking cup were recognized as early as the sixteenth century in connection with the visitations of the plague, but the subject attracted no wide interest until the discovery of the bacteriological causation of disease. A period of agitation has led, in the last four years,to the enactment of a body of statutes and the promulgation of many administrative regulations on the subject, looking to the removal of this menace to the public health. The progress of this movement to July, 1912, with the laws and regulations thereon in force is reviewed in Bulletin No. 57 of the United States Public Health Service.

Down to the mid-summer of 1912 twenty-six states and one territory had taken action in the matter, either by law or through regulation of the health authorities. In nine states and one territory the action was by statute. These were Colorado, Connecticut, Hawaii, Illinois, Indiana, Kentucky, Maryland, Massachusetts, New Hampshire and New Jersey. In seventeen states, viz., Idaho, Iowa, Kansas, Louisiana, Michigan, Mississippi, Missouri, Montana, Oklahoma, Oregon, South Carolina, South Dakota, Texas, Utah, Vermont, Washington and Vermont, the same end was sought by regulations of the state board of health. Six of the states specifically confer authority on the health boards to this end, while in the others the boards work under their general regulatory powers. A number of important cities have taken action by ordinance on this subject. Among these are New York, Buffalo, Albany, St. Louis, St. Paul, Toledo, Atlanta, Pasadena and Louisville. Certain railroads have also voluntarily abolished common drinking cups.

The application of these rules and regulations varies widely. In Texas the provisions apply only to railroads, in Indiana and Montana to schools and to both schools and railroads in seven states. The more comprehensive laws include specifically one or more of these in addition to the foregoing: hotels, restaurants, steamboats, ferry boats, stores, parks, streets, factories, libraries, public buildings and institutions and theatres. Louisiana includes also "other publicly frequented places;" New Jersey makes it apply to "all places to which the public have the right of access." Only Colorado and South Dakota specifically mention churches. In Colorado common cups may be used anywhere "in case proper and adequate provision be furnished for sterilizing the same, and such cup be thoroughly sterilized after each use thereof." Massachusetts requires the furnishing of individual cups on trains and Missouri recommends the provision of them. Massachusetts has prohibited the use of the suction shuttle popularly called the "kiss of death" and the public use of lung-testing machines or other such devices which require the application of the lips.

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[1] See National Municipal Review, vol. 1, p.417.

[2] Municipal reference librarian, St. Louis Public Library, St. Louis, Missouri.

Even more recently, on the conviction that a like measure of danger inheres in the use of common towels similar legislation has been enacted on that subject. Nine states have taken action previous to the legislative sessions of 1913. Three of these have acted through statute, viz., Connecticut, Massachusetts and Wisconsin, and six, Indiana, Kansas, Missouri, South Carolina and Washington by regulation of the state board of health.

As in the case of the drinking cup the scope of the regulation varies from schools in Indiana and railroads in Washington to "all places used by the public or where persons are employed." Missouri places under similar ban public combs and brushes. A number of cities, including Chicago, Buffalo, Detroit, St. Paul and San Francisco, have by ordinance abolished the common towel.

In several departments of the federal government, including the marine hospitals, the common cup and towel have been dispensed with.

Frank G. Bates.[1]

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Chicago's New Bureau of Fire Prevention and Public Safety. On July 22, 1912, the Chicago city council passed an ordinance creating a bureau in the fire department to be known as the bureau of fire prevention and public safety. New York has organized a fire prevention bureau, which is almost entirely independent of its fire department. In Chicago, however, the bureau is wholly within the fire department and under the direct supervision of the fire marshal, with an assistant fire marshal in charge. Excepting a few technical men, known as fire prevention engineers, all of the field inspectors are detailed from the parent department and are taken from the civil service eligible list for lieutenants in the fire department. Hereafter every man before becoming an officer will have secured experience as an inspector in fire prevention.

The ordinance as passed is far reaching and comprehensive, embracing in considerable detail the following subjects:

Article I. Draft of ordinance creating bureau, designating employees and prescribing their powers and duties.

Article II. Classification of buildings.

Article III. Designating buildings and conditions under which automatic sprinklers shall be installed.

Article IV. Designating buildings in which inside or outside standpipes shall be installed.

Article V. Designating buildings and classes of business in which portable fire apparatus shall be maintained.

Article VI. Designating buildings and conditions under which private fire brigades shall be maintained, and fire drills conducted.

Article VII. Miscellaneous provisions for theatres.

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[1] University of Indiana.

Article VIII. In fire escapes, exits, etc.

Article IX. Lighting and ways of egress in certain buildings.

Article X. Construction and Safety requirements for garages.

Article XI. Construction of dry cleaning plants and safety requirements.

Article XII. Construction and safety requirements for chimneys, stacks, flues, etc.

Article XIII. Regulating sale, storage and use of explosives.

Article XIV. Regulations for acetylene gas.

Article XV. Regulation of motion picture films.

Article XVI. Regulating manufacture, storage and sale of matches.

Article XVII. Regulating transportation, storage and handling of volatile oils.

Article XVIII. Miscellaneous provisions containing 80 sections.

The force of the bureau now consists of an assistant fire marshal as chief of the bureau, a fire prevention engineer in charge, a deputy fire prevention engineer in charge, three fire prevention engineers, one principal clerk, twenty-six first class firemen as fire prevention inspectors, and two stenographers. Politics and political prestige are entirely eliminated from the Chicago Bureau, all positions save that of the chief, who is appointed by the fire chief, being filled by open competitive civil service examinations.

Frederick Rex.[1]

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Chicago's New Police Ordinance.—On December 30, 1912, the Chicago city council passed an ordinance readjusting the police department of the city. The ordinance divides the entire department into two distinct bureaus, each subordinate to the general superintendent of police. The two bureaus created are (1) The active bureau, under the immediate supervision of the first deputy superintendent of police, and (2) the clerical, mechanical and inspection bureau which is subject to the supervision of the second deputy superintendent of police.

The ordinance provides that the first deputy superintendent of police shall be a member of the police force and have charge of all matters pertaining to the enforcement of the municipal laws and ordinances, the prevention of crime and the apprehension of criminals. He also has control over the assignment and distribution of the police force and the regulation of street traffic.

The second deputy superintendent of police according to the ordinance "shall not be a member of the police force." He is charged with the general care, custody and inspection of the property and records of the department, the instruction of the members of the police force and of ascertaining and recording their relative efficiency, both individual and grouped and with the receipt and investigation of all complaints of citizens regarding members of the uniformed force. The censoring of moving pictures and public performances of all kinds is placed under the second deputy's supervision as well as "the supervision of the strict enforcement of all laws and ordinances pertaining to all matters affecting public morals."

Frederick Rex.[1]

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Standard Lamp Posts.—On January 27 an ordinance was passed by the Chicago city council providing for standard lighting poles for electrical street lighting. All lamp posts for electric lights are divided into three classes, namely (1) posts for commercial incandescent lighting; (2) posts for down town district arc lighting; (3) posts for outlying district arc lighting. The ordinance makes specific provisions concerning the quality, height, painting and equipment of the posts in each of the three classes. Before the erection of an electric lamp post in any public street applica ion must be made to the commissioner of public works on a form prescribed by the department of electricity.[2]

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[1] Chicago, Illinois.

[1] Chicago, Illinois.

[2] Frederick Rex.

II. JUDICIAL DECISIONS[1]

Commission Government in Mississippi:—The validity of the statute enabling cities in Mississippi to adopt the commission form of government was upheld in *Mayor, etc., of the City of Jackson against the State ex rel Howie,*[2] against an assorted variety of miscellaneous objections, none of which have any necessary relation to the validity of the commission form of government. A visitor from another planet where cases are tried on their merits, disregarding extraneous questions (if haply there is such a place), would be filled with amazement quite unmingled with admiration at an examination of the large list of cases in which the question of commission form of government has been agitated. Among them has been urged about every objection that ingenuity could devise or meticulous technicality trump up, and by far the greater majority of these would be equally applicable to statutes of any other subject. It is impossible perhaps to keep all collateral questions out of a case and still more difficult to prevent litigants from resorting to any possible means of winning their cases, but a system which actually promotes and encourages the determination of important causes, even temporarily, upon grounds which have no connection whatever with the real point at issue; disposing of the cause without settling the grievance, is certainly wrong somewhere.

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Amending Commission Charters.—The commission charter of Spokane, Washington, provided for its amendment by popular vote. It was contended in *State ex rel Hindley v. Superior Court.*[3] that this power applied only to such revisory or supplemental changes as the working of the present charter might suggest, and did not include amendments which altered or annulled the basic plan on which the government is founded—a curious belated echo of the argument on the reserved right to secede and thereby violate the original compact of Union which once rang loud through the country. The court held that it was not its function to classify amendments or draw the line between such as were in harmony with and such as were hostile to the basic principle of the charter, but that the whole question was a political one. This decision is one of many—notably the decision of the United States supreme court in the initiative and referendum case—which mark a tendency on the part of courts to withdraw from the extreme position in respect of the power of constitutional interpretation and of the construction of legislative acts which has been strongly criticised of late both in the study and on the street. It may not be true, as Mr. Dooley says, that the "shupreme court hears the iliction returns," but it is certainly true that, however slowly and cautiously, they do yield to great currents of public opinion. The city of Spokane was permitted to vote upon return to the old form of government.

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Swapping Water for Taxes.—The Kentucky court of appeals held in *City of Winchester. Winchester Water Works Company,*[4] that an agreement between a city and a water company whereby the company furnished to the city water to an amount equal to the taxes assessed upon the system and franchises, is valid and not an unlawful exemption of the company from taxation. The decision is clearly correct and is supported by a large number of authorities. The policy embodied in the law is quite as certainly unsound. Nothing more pointedly marks the advance of business morals on the part of public service corporations than the increase of the practice of paying money for what they get and not collecting money for what they give, to and from all alike. "No passes nor discriminations in favor of public officers or bodies, gentlemen," said a member of a new public utilities commission, addressing a conference of managers the other day, "Let your dealings with them be on a strictly cash basis." The general laugh which followed was a recognition of the old system; the fact there was nothing conscious or embarrassed about it was certainly a tribute to the new. Short cuts in services or bookkeeping in public utility business are pretty sure to "short-change" somebody.

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[1] Prepared by Richard W. Montague, Esq., of the Portland, Oregon, Bar.

[2] 59 Southern Reporter 873.

[3] 126 Pacific Reporter, p. 920.

[4] 148 Southwestern Reporter, p. 1.

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The Smoke Nuisance.—The smoke nuisance has won another round, or more accurately speaking, another point; this time in New Jersey. Jersey City adopted an ordinance declaring it unlawful to "permit the emission of dense smoke from any stack connected with any locomotive within the city limits which smoke contains cinders or other substance in sufficient quantities to cause injury to health or property." *Erie Railway Company v. Mayor, etc., of Jersey City.*[1] The court declared it to be "a fundamental proposition that the chartered right of a railroad to operate its line included the right to make such noise, smoke, and smells as are really unavoidable in the proper and careful conduct of its business, even if some injury to health or some damage to property be caused thereby." On this ground the court held the ordinance invalid and held further that a finding that more smoke was actually emitted than was necessary did not cure the defect. One might fancy this decision was based on the views of Dr. Woods Hutchinson in a current magazine to the effect that smoke is really pretty wholesome, and except for the looks of it soot in very moderate quantities as we acquire in an ordinary smoke-laden atmosphere, is perchance a blessing in disguise. It should be said in justice to the court, however, that on the same day it sustained a conviction of the Erie Railroad Company under a state statute for maintaining a public nuisance in "emitting divers noisesome, unwholesome, and dense smoke and noxious vapors from its engines and roundhouse in greater quantities than were required for the legitimate and proper use and operation of its railroad." In the latter case the court strongly intimates that even the constitutional right to use soft coal cannot be pushed to excess, and they speak this cheering language:

"We find nothing in the charters of the constituent companies of the defendant which concedes to it the absolute right of burning soft coal ad libitum regardless of the public right, and in the absence of such a concession we must assume that while the legislature granted to the defendant the right to operate a railroad this right carried with it no grant of power to commit a nuisance." The decision makes good reading. *State v. Erie Railway Company.*[2]

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Devoting the Whole of One's Time to a City Office.—The requirement that a municipal officer shall devote his whole time to the duties of his office seems to be pretty strictly interpreted in England. A barrister writing for the *Municipal Journal* lays it down as the law that while a technical employee might prepare and read a paper at a meeting of his fellow engineers he would have to consult the city about taking any pay for it. He quotes a rule of the London county council forbidding any city official to publish a book on the title page of which or elsewhere it appears that he is such official. It may be surmised that that rule at any rate would not be often violated in this country for at least two good reasons. The London county council it appears has also a regulation prohibiting an employee to take out patents for inventions without the special consent of the council and on conditions as to its free use by the city if available for their purposes. It is strongly insisted that the intention to have the entire benefit of the employee's services is at the maximum in regard to principal officials and lessens in its force with the subordinate ranks; a doctrine which sounds incredibly democratic to the inhabitants of this democratic republic.

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[1] 84 Atlantic Reporter, 697.

[2] 84 Atlantic Reporter, 698.

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Making Cities Pay for Improvements.—Decisions have been previously noted in the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW upon the liability of a city to pay for public improvements where the proceedings required to fix the liability of the abutting property owners had not been properly carried out, notwithstanding provisions both of the law and the contract that those doing the work should look to the fund derived from the benefitted property alone. The decisions referred to were placed on the ground that it was the duty of the city to take the proceedings necessary to fix the liability in proper and legal form and that its failure to do so was a wrong which neither statute nor contract could excuse. The supreme court of Iowa in *First National Bank v. Emmetsburg*,[1] reaches the same result by a somewhat different route. It holds that in such a case the contract being fully performed and the city having had the benefit of the improvements is estopped to deny that it had power to make them. This doctrine depends upon the further holding that the making of such public improvements as sewers and street paving is an exercise, not of the city's public and governmental, but of its private and proprietary powers, wherein it is practically a private corporation. The distinction is one difficult to maintain with any logical strictness or practical convenience, and the estoppel doctrine is very likely to bind a city with dangerous severity to bad or improvident contracts. The other doctrine, it is submitted, has the advantage in simplicity and exactness of application to the facts, and is especially preferable in that under it the city would probably not be burdened in any case beyond the reasonable value of the improvement without regard to the contract price. In either there is a marked tendency to require fair and honest conduct in the teeth of strict requirements of law.

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The Dictagraph Again.—More councilmen have been getting into trouble with dictagraphs. In Atlantic City, New Jersey, one of these wicked inventions was installed in a room where a supposed wealthy promoter was separated from large portions of tainted money by members of the city's governing body desirous of transmuting base franchises into gold. A stenographer stationed without took down the conversation and read it later in corroboration of the supposed promoter, who was really a detective hired for the purpose. The reporter's evidence was admitted. It is hard to see how it could be excluded since it is a matter of physical demonstration that the instrument transmits the sounds in the room where it is installed—even very faint ones—to the stenographer without, and his testimony therefore stands on precisely the same footing as that of anyone who had heard the conversations while himself in the room. Rulings to the contrary, if any, must be put on the ground that there is not sufficient evidence that the instrument has been installed, or that the operator has heard the conversation over it. In any case the testimony has no peculiar value—more than if the listener had bored a hole in the wall and put his ear to it. The efficacy of the instrument as a detecter of fraud rests in the fact that it can be disguised as a typewriter, a filing case, or any article of furniture desired and deceive the unwary grafter. Suspicion of them is becoming pretty prevalent, however.

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[1] 138 N. W. Rep., 45.

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Municipal Ice for Cities.—The Georgia supreme court in the case of *Holton v. the City of Camilla*[1] has held that the issue of bonds by the city for the purpose of acquiring an ice and coal storage plant was constitutional. The court declared that such an act was constitutional because it is understood that a city has a right to bring water from a long distance so as to make it purer. Therefore in analogy to this right it has the further right to carry it if it can in pipes, "and if it be necessary to the welfare, comfort and convenience of the inhabitants that its temperature be lowered, it being used for drinking purposes, why cannot the city," the court asks, "provide for the delivery of a part of it in a frozen condition to be used in cooling such part of the balance as is used for drinking purposes? Is the difference between water in a frozen condition and in a liquid form a radical one? Upon what principle can the doctrine rest that liquid water may be delivered by the city to its inhabitants by flowage through pipes, but that water in frozen blocks could not be delivered by wagon or otherwise? If the city has the right to furnish its inhabitants with water in a liquid form we fail to see any reason why it cannot furnish it to them in a frozen condition." Under its police power the court held that the city has a right to purify water. Warm water is just as deleterious to public health as impure water and therefore the city may cool it. The court further held that there is nothing in the objection that the city may be said to be engaged in manufacturing. Equally well might it be said to be manufacturing when by the use of a filtering process it changes impure water into that which is pure. "When in connection with its waterworks system it produces ice, it merely by certain processes changes the form and temperature of a part of the water supply by that system."[2]

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The Attorney-General of Ohio has ruled that under the new constitutional amendments cities cannot engage in the business of manufacturing and distributing ice. He makes a distinction between public utilities such as gas, heat and light, street car and water works plants and ice manufacturing plants by declaring that the latter do not like the others use the public streets and thoroughfares.

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[1] 134 Georgia Supreme Court Reports, 560.

[2] From Hubert J. Horan, Jr., of the Philadelphia Bar.

DEPARTMENT OF REPORTS AND DOCUMENTS

I. CRITICAL AND INTERPRETATIVE

Edited by John A. Fairlie

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State Public Service Commission Reports.[1]—The movement started in 1907 by New York and Wisconsin toward the establishment of state commissions for the general regulation of public utilities has steadily spread until at present such commissions have been established in nearly a score of states. The reports and decisions of the more important of these commissions form the most valuable source of information upon the general subject of the regulation of public service corporations.

The report of the New York commission of the first district for the year 1910 was issued in three volumes, the first of which was noticed in the January, 1912, number of this Review. The second volume contains the formal orders issued by the commission during 1910. The principal matters regarding which orders were issued by the commission were rates and fares, operation, service and equipment, reports to be filed by corporations, the abatement of nuisances and the elimination of grade crossings. The third volume of the report contains a compilation by the chief statistician of the commission of the statistics of transportation companies derived from the annual reports made by them to the commission. These reports were the first made under the new accountancy rules prescribed by the commission in 1908. An attempt has been made to analyze the returns and to draw conclusions. With regard to the relation between the increase of street railway traffic and the increase of population, the conclusion is reached that "traffic may be expected to increase in New York City at twice the rate of increase of population." The factors in this problem are illustrated by a number of interesting diagrams.

During 1912 the commission for the first district issued a volume containing all the opinions rendered by the commission in cases decided between July 1, 1907 and September 1, 1909. The opinions relate principally to such matters as the granting of franchises, bond issues, rates and charges, safety devices and transfers. The volume contains, at page 705, the opinion in the well-known Coney

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[1] Report of the Public Service Commission, First District, New York, for year ending December 31, 1910, 3 volumes.

Reports of Decisions of the Public Service Commission, First District, New York, volume 1, 1912, 789 pp.

Fifth Annual Report, Public Service Commission Second District, New York, year ending December 31, 1911, 3 volumes.

Forty-third Annual Report of the Board of Railroad Commissioners, State of Massachusetts, for year ending December 31, 1911, 459 pp.

Index-Digest of Decisions of Board of Railroad Commissioners, Massachusetts, from 1870 to 1911, 115 pp.

Second Annual Report of Board of Public Utility Commissioners, State of New Jersey, for year 1911, 478 pp.

Report of Public Service Commission, State of Maryland, for year 1911, 724 pp. and index.

First Biennial Report of the Public Service Commission of New Hampshire for period ending November 30, 1911, Volume 1, 593 pp. and index.

Fourth Annual Report of the Corporation Commission of the State of Oklahoma for the year ending June 30, 1911, 822 pp. and index.

Twenty-first Annual Report of the Railroad Commission of Texas for the year 1911, 482 pp. and index.

Orders issued by the Public Service Commission of Ohio in formal proceedings from July 1, 1911 to May 1, 1912, 124 pp. and index.

Report of the Railroad Commission of California for 1912.

Pamphlets on Public Utility Regulation, issued by the National Civic Federation, 1912–13.

Island rate case. At page 756 is printed the opinion of Commissioner Maltbie on the requirement of the adoption of a uniform system of accounts for transportation and lighting companies.

The New York commission of the second district differs from that for the first district chiefly in having to deal with a larger number of corporations, but of smaller size and capitalization. At the end of 1911 there were 940 public service corporations subject to the supervision of the former commission, of which 62 were steam railroads. In the report of the commission for 1911 it is stated that a fuller inspection of such roads was made by the commission in that year than in previous years, attention being directed not only to construction and maintenance as related to safety but also to sufficiency of service and general conduct of business. The commission has also pushed rapidly the work of eliminating grade crossings, the expense of which is borne in part by the state. A series of interesting tables is published in the report of the commission exhibiting the results of the investigation of the quality of gas furnished consumers and of the efficiency of telephone service. An appendix contains a plan for a uniform system of accounts for telephone corporations. Volumes 2 and 3 of the report contain abstracts of the reports made to the commission by all corporations under its supervision.

The board of railroad commissioners of Massachusetts has jurisdiction over steam railroads and street railways. The report of the board for 1911 contains a tabulation of the returns received from such companies and a compilation of the orders issued by the board. Among the investigations conducted by the board has been one as to the types of fenders used on street cars in the principal American and European cities. A general tendency is discovered toward the abandonment of the use of protruding fenders and the adoption of automatic wheel-guards. The report of the board is accompanied by a separate volume containing a useful index-digest of the the reported decisions, precedents and and general principles enunciated by the board from 1870 to 1911.

The New Jersey board of public utility commissioners is an outgrowth of the former board of railroad commissioners. The transformation took place by an act of 1910, but the powers of the new board were by that act allowed to remain inadequate for effective work. In particular, the rate-making power was not granted. By an amendatory act of 1911, however, this defect was remedied, the jurisdiction of the board was expanded, and since that time it has taken on new life and activity. The problems with which the board has had especially to deal are commutation rates and charges for gas and telephone service. According to its report for 1911 the board has made substantial progress toward a satisfactory settlement of the question of commutation rates to New York City, through the coöperation of the interstate commerce commission. The report contains a synopsis of the decisions and orders of the board. It is recommended by the board that the public utility law be amended by the adoption of the device of the indeterminate franchise, similar to that in the Wisconsin law, to be compulsory for all new public utilities and permissive, where possible, for existing public utilities.

The report of the public service commission of Maryland for 1911 deals principally with the opinions and orders of the commission upon such matters as applications for authority to issue stocks and bonds, complaints of excessive or discriminatory rates, mergers of corporations, accidents and grade crossings. An appendix contains a report upon telephone rates in Baltimore.

Under a law which went into effect in 1912 the jurisdiction of the California railroad commission has been considerably enlarged so as to include street railways, gas and electric light companies and other public utilities in addition to railroads. The number of members of the commission has been increased from three to five and they are now appointive by the governor instead of elective by popular vote, as was formerly the case. The enlarged jurisdiction of the commission undoubtedly increases its usefulness, as is indicated by its unusually full and valuable report. The commission has been engaged in making an exhaustive list of the public utilities over which it has supervision. It has heard numerous complaints as to service and petitions to increase rates and has disposed of such cases by the issuance of suitable orders. The work of the commission has been systematized and specialists have been employed to manage the technical branches of the work connected with public utility regulation.

The report of the corporation commission of Oklahoma indicates that that body has been principally occupied with rate cases. The orders of the Commission establishing railroad, express and telegraph rates have tended toward radical reductions, and in a number of cases have been set aside as unreasonable by decisions of the United States courts. The commission has represented shippers of the state before the interstate commerce commission in a number of complaints with regard to interstate rates. The report contains the text of the orders of the commission and statistics of corporations over which the commission has supervision.

The Ohio public service commission has issued a pamphlet containing the text of its orders issued in formal proceedings during the past year. These consist principally of orders issued in cases of applications of railroads and other corporations to issue stock and bonds.

The report of the railroad commission of Texas contains the orders issued and the tariffs and rules adopted and promulgated by the commission during the past year. In the appendices appear numerous statistical tables dealing with the railroads of Texas.

The department on regulation of interstate and municipal utilities of the National Civic Federation has recently conducted an investigation into the regulation of public utilities in the principal states of this country and in England. Examination has been made of state laws, court decisions and decisions of public utility commissions and digests of these materials have been prepared and issued in a series of pamphlets dealing with such topics as the organization of commissions, franchises, regulation of stock and bond issues, and regulation of service and rates. Special attention has been given in the investigation to the regulation of capitalization, the device of the sliding scale, profit sharing, and to the question of state versus municipal regulation. On the basis of the information collected a model public utilities law has been drafted.

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Reports of Municipal Civil Service Commissions.—One cannot examine the recent annual reports of civil service commissions in the most important cities of the country without a growing feeling of optimism. In cities like Philadelphia, where the merit system has been for many years a by-word and a laughing stock, it is now a real system with real merit. Elsewhere new, as well as the old, principles of civil service administration are being developed and improved and there is increasing recognition of the duty which civil service commissions must perform if they are to meet the insistent and intelligent demands for business-like efficiency in the public service.

The report of the Philadelphia commission for the year ending December 31, 1911, is an outline of the plans of work which the present commissioners, who came into office under Mayor Blankenburg on December 6, 1911, had mapped out for themselves and the principal steps taken in the twenty-five days of their term. Discussing the question of classification, the commission points out that the exempt and non-competitive class had been unduly extended and said, "this commission resolved to advance the work of maintaining the competitive principle through reformation of both of these classes," and further on it points out that, "One of the earliest acts of this commission was to transfer from the non-competitive to the competitive class the clerical and other employees of the law department below the grades of assistant city solicitors. The commission began arrangement also to include under the competitive examination system the non-competitives generally in the offices of the mayor and directors of the executive departments and including the employees of the civil service commission's office who, under the preceding administration, had been placed in the non-competitive class." In the matter of promotions the present commission found that the old rule allowing the appointing officers to appoint any person on an eligible list established through a promotion examination amounted to nothing more than a non-competitive system and practically broke down the promotion system. "The present commission therefore planned a rule to be adopted early in January, 1912, for certification of eligibles to the appointing officer in the manner prescribed by law for making original appointments, requiring that he make his appointment from among the four highest upon the list and that each name be certified four times."

The physical requirements for patrolmen and firemen were found upon examination to be below the standards elsewhere. The commission therefore suspended work upon the examinations which had been held for these positions in October, raised the physical requirements, and then ordered all who had taken part in examinations under the old requirements to present themselves for a physical reëxamination, which, if passed, would allow them to enter the next examination without new application. Other evils which the commission says it intended in its new rules to correct were connected with the reinstatement of policemen and firemen, the excessive number of provisional appointments without competition because of the absence of an eligible list, and the faulty system of registration and certification of laborers. This last evil was particularly bad, because the rule in regard to the certification of laborers allowed the appointing officer to appoint anyone they pleased from the register, with the result, as the commission pointed out, that it "practically left groundless the hope of applicants to be appointed if unable to procure endorsers to influence the appointing powers." Another serious abuse in the same connection was the practice of assigning laborers to "clerical, skilled labor, or other work rightfully belonging to persons who have passed competitive examination." "To prevent the appointing officer from assigning laborers to positions in the competitive class and to confine them strictly to the class in which the law places them has been among the purposes of the commission in framing new rules generally to become effective as early as possible."

The report of the Chicago commission is of particular interest as indicating the extent to which that commission has developed efficiency in the service through standardization of work, grading of the service and investigations into the efficiency of the various departments. "The positions," says the report for 1911, "are now graded on a duties basis, schedules of grades, titles and salaries are uniform for positions in the engineering, clerical, police, operating engineering, fire and labor services, positions in the medical, inspection, supervising, skilled labor and labor services have been classified and uniform schedules of grades and titles adopted. Schedules of uniform salaries in the inspection, medical and supervising services are now before the commission for adoption."

The idea of departmental organization charts has been further developed and improvements in the methods of their preparation have been made. The commission points out that, "the preparation of these charts has served two purposes, one administrative and the other educational. Since preparing the first charts showing departmental organization and distribution of employees important changes have been made by means of consolidation and further coordination between different departments. In all cases the commission has coöperated with departmental officials and members of the city council in the analysis and presentation of constructive recommendations for the purpose of increasing the efficiency and economy of the administration and amending the same where such has been amended. Several department heads used the commission's analysis of departmental activities in making their appropriation estimates for 1912."

The efficiency division has conducted a number of investigations, the most important of which was the investigation into conditions in the police department, and "it has aided department heads in the solution of many problems in reference to the organization, system and methods of controlling efficiency of individuals and groups of employees in the service." Among the departments which have had the benefit of the expert services of the efficiency department are the commissioner of public works, the bureau of food inspection under the commissioner of health, the commissioner of buildings, and the public library.

In New York City the commission in its report for 1911 notes that, "the volume of the business of the commission continues to increase steadily and . . . the commission finds difficulty in satisfying the demands of the service and keeping within its appropriation." The statistics in the report show that there were 52,929 places under the jurisdiction of the commission, of which 29,204 were in the competitive class. During the year it held, including noncompetitive and promotion examinations, 354 tests, involving the examination of 18,053 candidates.

Among the improvements which it notes particularly are the establishment of a bureau of investigation to examine into the character and record of candidates for patrolman and eventually for the entire service, and the extension and development of the promotion system. Referring to the promotion system and the efficiency records which form a part of the system, the report says: "Every candidate knows that his ability to rise in the service depends on his own merits. This is a splendid device for good government and for the recognition of ability and faithful service." The commission also points, with pardonable pride, to the high character and marked success of the promotion examination last year for chief of the New York City fire department, and says: "It is acknowledged generally that this is the most important position ever filled by competitive examination in this or any other country and the experiment, costly and exhaustive though it was, shows that practically any public office that does not involve the creation of and responsibility for administrative policies may be satisfactorily filled by intelligent and just competition."

Two long standing abuses which were corrected were the practice of allowing eligibles to waive their rights to other positions on the eligible list and alteration of efficiency records by department officers. The practice of recognizing "waivers" was without any recognition by law and resulted in pressure being brought to bear on persons who were at the head of eligible lists or were in line for promotion to get out of the way in order to allow the appointment or promotion of some favorite. The commission properly took the position that a waiver should be treated as a declination, which deprived the candidate of right to another certification for the same position at the same salary, and the report says: "In one week that evil had come to an end in every department of the city government." Administrative officers were denied the right to alter efficiency records because to allow such alterations would break down the promotion system. The commission not only insisted that such alterations should not be made, but "decided that wherever records are not maintained properly and subject to frequent inspection by its (commission's) examiners no promotion will be allowed in that department and vacancies will have to be filled from open competitive lists."

In Kansas City, where the civil service law has been be operation a little over two years, the commission had to meet the difficult problem of filling *de novo* every position in the classified service. Its first annual report, dated January 16, 1911, which is the last report at hand, has a full statement of the purposes, policies and methods which the commission had determined upon. After careful study and consultation with experts, the commissioners agreed upon their main lines of policy described in part in their report as follows:

> First, to employ as examiners for each examination a board of citizen experts—men of well recognized ability and integrity, specialists in the duties of the particular positions to be filled—who could coöperate with the commissioners and secretary in framing examination questions, conducting the oral examinations in person and in actually grading the papers . . . . Second, in starting the system it was deemed best to hold examinations for the higher positions first. . . . . Third, the board found it impossible under the circumstances to make a complete scientific classification of the city service. . . . The board, therefore, attempted no further classification than that which is embraced in the various ordinances of the city creating the several positions and accordingly proceeded to hold examinations for the several positions in the different departments, taking them in order as they appear on the payroll in the comptroller's office.

Following these policies, the commission in its first six months held 148 examinations, in which 1,866 candidates took part, and filled 366 positions from the resulting eligible lists. The list of positions for which competitive examinations were held includes such important places as that of commissioner of street cleaning, superintendent of street repairs, city engineer, assistant city counsellor and superintendent of Swope Park. Specimen examination papers printed in an appendix to the report show that these tests were developed along highly practical lines.

Not the least interesting part of this report is the statement of the economy and efficiency which have followed the application of the merit system in Kansas City. In the office of the inspector of weights and measures the collections for the four months of September, October, November and December of the year 1910 amounted to $1,018.70, as against $853.55 for the corresponding months of the preceding year. "The market master certified by the board collected during the months of September, October, November and December, 1910, $433.25 more market fees, $1,198.55 more market rents and $1195 more wagon rents than his predecessor during the corresponding months." The city license inspector showed "the astonishing increase in collections of his department for November and December, 1910, of $13,638.51 over the corresponding months of the previous year." Numerous other instances of a similar sort are cited in this report.

In rather striking contrast to the report of the Kansas City commission is that of the Cleveland commission for the year ending December 31, 1911. The report is brief, taking only about two and one-half pages. The work of the commission covered the following points—appeals from dismissals, the holding of examinations and revision of rules relating to such matters as lay-offs and reinstatements, physical qualifications of patrolmen, emergency appointments, etc. With reference to the last-mentioned activity the Cleveland report reads as follows:

> During the year the commission in a few instances secured outside assistance in the preparation of examinations, chiefly in connection with the more technical branches of the service. While the commission here make grateful acknowledgement of the valuable help received in these instances, it still believes it to be impractical to attempt to apply this method to the examinations generally.

The Municipal Association of Cleveland has severely criticised the commission for its insistence on the antiquated idea of the commissioners themselves setting and rating examination papers. The amount of work which this entailed upon the commission may be appreciated when it is considered that according to the report of the secretary the commissioners had to review approximately 18,000 examination papers and over 98,000 answers on a great variety of subjects. The Cleveland commission evidently has something to learn from Kansas City.

Robert W. Belcher.

New York City.

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Taxation of Land Values.—The United Committee for the Taxation of Land Values is a central organization composed of representatives from the English, Scotch, Welsh and Irish leagues. There are many subordinate leagues in England and Scotland. The fifth annual report of the United Committee speaks in a hopeful tone as it records the year's work. It calls attention to the general work of agitation and propaganda throughout the United Kingdom and prints a long and imposing list of meetings held in all parts of the country, addressed by members of parliament and others well known to the voters. It recites the work of the "land values" group in parliament and the presentation of the land and taxation reform memorial, signed by 170 members out of a total of 670, and notes the significance of the response of the prime minister that "he regarded the question of great importance, both in its urban and in its rural aspects, although in his opinion, the rural aspect was more urgent at the present time."

It records the victories at bye-elections, where at North-West, Norfolk, Holmfirth and Hanley, brilliant victories were won by candidates who stood unequivocally for the taxation of land values and who subordinated every other question to that one. And finally it shows a revenue account disclosing nearly £6000 received and disbursed in support of their cause.

To the average American, however great his interest in economic reform, it is a little difficult to understand the British situation, because he must constantly keep in mind the difference between America and Great Britain. Here we have 48 state legislatures competent to alter and amend state tax laws; there they have one imperial parliament which alone can deal with this question. Here we have land and buildings assessed regularly and taxed each year for the support of government. There they have the remnant of a "land tax" based on an assessment made two centuries ago and local taxes called rates imposed on tenants and occupiers in proportion to the rent paid.

Into this situation, the British land value taxers have interjected the idea of assessing and taxing land values. This seems so natural to us that we can scarcely understand the stir that it makes when it is proposed in a country where such a thing does not exist. But, as single taxers, they limit their proposal to the taxation of land values and not of improvements, and that can be perrectly understood here.

The finance act of 1909 (*i.e.* the imperial budget of that year) carried with it the valuation of all land in the United Kingdom and imposed a tax of a half penny in the pound on all agricultural land fit for suburban development. The valuation of all the land in the United Kingdom is in progress, but sometime will be required for its completion. When it is completed there will probably be a still stronger demand for an increased tax on land values and for an act that will permit municipalities to impose local rates on land values.

E. L. HEYDECKER.

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East St. Louis East Side Levee and Sanitary District.[1]—An interesting and unusual method of carrying out and financing an extensive public improvement affecting a number of neighboring municipalities is being undertaken by the East Side Levee and Sanitary District. This district covers an area of 96 square miles forming part of what is known as the American Bottom on the Illinois side of the Mississippi River opposite St. Louis and includes the cities of East St. Louis, Granite City, Madison, Venice, Brooklyn, Mitchell, Nameoki and Cahokia in St. Clair and Madison counties, with a population of over 80,000. The low lands of this section have been subjected to the floods of the Mississippi River and its tributaries, doing immense damage to crops and lands as well as in the several cities and villages. After engineering studies by United States officers and a local association, an act of the Illinois general assembly of 1907 was passed under which the district has been organized. In 1908 the district was formed, by popular vote, and a board of five trustees elected.

The law authorizing this district is an adoptive act, of a type highly developed in Illinois as a means of overcoming constitutional restrictions. It follows some of the general principles of the law for the organization of drainage districts, but with important modifications somewhat like those in the act under which the Chicago sanitary and ship canal has been constructed. The district is a distinct municipal corporation with power to levy taxes and borrow money over and above the financial powers of the cities and other municipalities in the same teritory. This multiplication of overlapping authorities is one of the banes of local government in Illinois, but it seems to be the most feasible way of carrying out certain large public works under the provisions of the present state constitution.

To meet the conditions a series of related works have been planned and have been partially undertaken. These include the diversion of Cahokia Creek from its present course east of the river cities directly to the Mississippi River in the north of the district, levees along the river front and on the southern boundary back to the bluffs, and a system of drainage canals within the district. The whole work is estimated to cost $6,600,000. The diversion channel has been completed, and the levee has been built from the diversion channel almost across the river front of East St. Louis.

Under the law the district trustees are authorized to levy an annual tax of 2 per cent on the taxable value of property in the district and to issue bonds up to 5 per cent of the taxable value. By the revenue law, the taxable value is one-third of the "full value" as determined by the assessors; and in fact is a smaller fraction of the true value of property. Under these provisions the trustees could issue bonds, at the present taxable valuation, for less than a million dollars, and levy less than four hundred thousand dollars a year in taxes. Under the usual method of issuing long term bonds, it would take about seventeen years to complete the work. To raise the funds more quickly an extraordinary use of the bonding power has been proposed and in part followed. Instead of issuing twenty year bonds, the trustees have borrowed up to the limit on one and two year bonds; and the taxes to pay interest and principal on these bonds must be levied, although this calls for a higher rate of taxation than the normal limit of two per cent. By continuing this process, paying off and issuing half a million dollars in bonds each year, it is estimated that funds can be raised to complete the project in about ten years more.

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[1] Proceedings of the Board of Trustees of the East Side Levee and Sanitary District, 1908–1912. Messages of President H. D. Sexton, 1911 and 1912.

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Bibliographical and Library Notes.—The Division of Recreation of the Russell Sage Foundation (400 Metropolitan Tower, New York City) has issued as publication 121 a "Recreation Bibliography" of 37 pages. It is a classified, annotated, and select list aiming particularly to note titles that most definitely meet the demands of the present day. In the preface the publishers request to be advised of the appearance of new material on this subject as the bibliography will be revised from time to time. For the convenience of those ordering from the list a page and a half is devoted to an alphabetical list of publishers with addresses. Entries are frequently priced.

Recent numbers of *Special Libraries* continue of interest for their municipal affairs data. The June 1912 issue prints another bibliography of "Public Utility References," p. 133–136, a "Selected List of Recent Available Collections of Laws and Allied Material" which notes several compilations of municipal ordinances as well; its "Current References" include titles on charities, city planning, fire prevention, high schools, street lighting, etc., and its "Bibliographies" section notes recent bibliograpies on city planning, excess condemnation, municipal welfare, and public utilities.

Miss Imhoff's paper on "Cataloguing for Legislative Reference Work" (September issue) applies almost equally as well to municipal reference libraries as far as principles are concerned; pages 154–158 present a list of references on motion pictures including laws and legislation and bibliographies noted include educational museums and the social evil.

The October issue's "References on Special Libraries" covers municipal reference libraries under the title "legislative reference."

The *American Library Annual* 1911–1912 (Publishers' Weekly Office, N. Y.) pp. 83–103 lists bibliographies that have appeared in 1911. Ten entries occur under the subject Municipal Government and many under specific headings for phases of municipal activity.

That public libraries in cities where there is no municipal reference library are alive to the general public interest in municipal affairs is evidenced by the numerous lists of references on various municipal topics that continue to appear in library bulletins and as separate publications in pamphlet form. A recent illustration is the Jersey City library's list of 22 pages on municipal governement. What library bulletins for the last eleven years have been published on municipal subjects may be learned by consulting the "Index to reference Lists Published by Libraries, 1901–1906, inclusive" published in the *Bulletin of Bibliography* (Bost. Book Company) volume 4, 159–166, and volume 5, 17–20. The "Index" for 1907–08, 1909, 1910, 1911 will be found in the same publication as follows: 1907–1908 in volume 5: 125–126 and 149–152; 1909 in volume 6: 74–77; 1910 in volume 6: 177–180; 1911 in volume 6: 303–306.

These cumulations have been reprinted separately and may be obtained from the publishers of the *Bulletin*.

For earlier library bulletins a key to reference lists published will be found in Alice Newman's "Index to subject, Bibliographies in Library Bulletins to December 31, 1897," published as *New York State Library Bulletin*, Bibliography No. 14, Albany 1898.

The *Bulletin of the New York Public Library* for September, 1912, contains Part I of a "List of City Charters, ordinances and Collectd Documents." The October *Bulletin* contains a "List of Works on City Wastes and Street Hygiene."

John B. Kaiser.

Urbana, Illinois.

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Civic Surveys.—*Pittsburgh.* The Report of the Economic Survey of Pittsburgh, by J. T. Holdsworth, Ph.D. is a substantial volume of over 200 pages, with many illustrations, especially of workmen's houses in Pittsburgh and other cities. The survey was made under authority of the mayor and council, and embraces investigations in a wide range of topics, such as the cost of living, recreation facilities, social surveys, municipal taxation, uneconomical use of land, municipal economy and efficiency and municipal reference library. The detailed report is preceded by a summary of findings and recommendations. The first fundamental need is held to be the eradication of smoke, the second great need is for a large increase in the supply of comfortable sanitary workmen's homes.

The major portion of the report was submitted in manuscript in March, 1912; and it is published under date of May 15. A note by Mr. Holdsworth as the report went to press October 1 records that several of the important betterments recommended had been accomplished or were in process of early realization.

Atlanta. The commitee on municipal research of the Atlanta Chamber of Commerce has published reports of a preliminary survey of the city government by Herbert R. Sands and S. G. Lindholm of the New York bureau of municipal research. One report covers the general organization and administration of the city government, except the health and educational departments, which are covered in the other report. While recognizing much to commend, the reports purposely emphasize the critical and constructive suggestions. The immediate steps urged are the establishment of a bureau of municipal research and a simpler form of government and the adoption of more efficient business methods.

The Chamber of Commerce has also brought about the creation of the Atlanta Improvement Commission, including citizens and city and county officials, to undertake the preparation of a city plan for the development of the city.

Chicago. A report on appropriations and expenditures for the bureau of streets in the City of Chicago has been issued by the efficiency division of the municipal civil service commission, as the result of an inquiry conducted at the request of the finance committee of the city council. This is based on an investigation of the cleaning and repair of streets and the removal of garbage and other refuse, with an analysis of the distribution of funds by wards and a discussion of uniform standards and schedules, on the basis of which estimates by wards for the year 1913 were prepared.

Baltimore. The bureau of state and municipal research issued in January 18, 1913, report no. 2 on "The Baltimore Budget." This is a study of the receipts and expenditures of the city from 1900 to 1913, inclusive, based on the ordinance of estimates for the various years and the estimates of receipts on which the board of estimates based its action. The report is a 16 page quarto, illustrated with six charts.

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County Administration.—The increased attention being given to problems of county administration is well illustrated by a number of reports on county affairs recently published. The Chicago bureau of public efficiency has added to its former publications reports on inquiries into the organization and administration of the clerks of the circuit, superior and county courts and the sheriff of Cook county, the growing cost of elections in Chicago and Cook County, and a protest against a contract for the purchase of voting machines.

The Municipal Association of Cleveland has published a report of an investigation of the coroner's office in Cuyahoga County.

An investigation into the affairs of Hudson County, N. J., made by order of Justice Francis J. Swayze on request of the board of chosen freeholders, has resulted in a series of reports made between June 77 and October 31, 1912, which together have been published in a pamphlet of 225 pages. These reports have been distributed through the Citizen's Federation of Hudson County, which has also published, in January 13, an illustrated comparison of appropriations and salaries from 1901-02 to 1910–11.

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Mayor's Messages.—*New York.* The annual message of Mayor Gaynor to the board of aldermen dated January 23, 1912, includes a statement of the comptroller showing the condition of the city's debt on December 31, 1911, and a brief summary report from each department of the city government under the mayor for the year 1911. The department reports serve to illustrate the lack of systematic administrative organization in the city government. There are no less than twenty distinct departments or bureaus; and the absence of any effective correlation is indicated by the alphabetical arrangement, beginning with the commissioners of accounts and ending with the mayor's bureau of weights and measures.

Philadelphia. On September 19, 1912, Mayor Blankenburg submitted to select and common councils a message with suggestions and recommendations for increasing the current revenues and borrowing capacity of the city. On January 1, 1913, he issued a New Year's letter to the citizens of Philadelphia, outlining the accomplishments of the first year of his administration.

Minneapolis. The annual message of Mayor James C. Haynes, dated June 14, 1912, does not attempt to review the work of all the city departments, but discusses a few subjects of special importance, including public utility problems, the police department and social and recreation centers.

Cincinnati. Mayor Hunt in his annual message of January 7, 1913, discusses, among other topics, the housing problem the newly established purchasing agent (called the greatest single administrative success of the year) and the work of an informal efficiency board, established to coördinate and control the work of the several departments.

Winnipeg. In his retiring message at the end of 1912, Mayor Waugh recommended a number of changes in the organization of the municipal government. The most important change proposed was that the members of the board of control should be elected for a stated office.

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Associations of Municipal officials.—*League of Virginia Municipalities.* The report of the sixth annual convention held at Cape Charles, Va., September 14 and 15, 1911, includes, among others, papers on public health, commission government and city finances.

New York State. In the *Proceedings* of the third annual conference of mayors and other city officials held at Utica, N. Y., June 10–12, 1912, appear a number of interesting papers and discussions on such questions as home rule, the social evil and street railway franchises. Among the speakers may be noted: Lieutenant-Governor Thomas S. Conway, Prof. Paul H. Harris, Robert S. Binkerd, Delos F. Wilcox, and Clinton Rogers Woodruff. The appearance of such men at a gathering of municipal officials indicates a new note in the attitude of the officials to municipal problems.

Kansas municipalities.[1] The published report of the *Proceedings* of the fourth annual convention presents a full account of the papers and discussions, prepared by the Municipal Reference Bureau of the University of Kansas. Fifty cities are enrolled as active members of the League. The list of officers and committees indicates an active organization, fourteen committees being provided for various municipal problems.

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[1] See National Municipal Review, vol. 2, p. 141.

The League of Pacific Northwest Municipalities. The *Proceedings* is a well printed and indexed pamphlet, including both the papers and discussions. Among the papers not previously noted in this REVIEW[2] may be mentioned the following—a municipal reference library, by Chas. G. Haines; regulation of public utilics, by Wm. J. Hagenah; and the practical working of commission government, by Mayor Hodges of Boise, Idaho.

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Business and Civic Organizations.—*The Minneapolis Civic and Commerce Association* was organized in December, 1911 and with it there has been amalgamated the Publicity Club, the Commercial Club and Minneapolis Traffic Association, forming a strong central organization for the discussion of business and municipal problems. The first annual report, for the year ending October 1912, shows a well planned committee system; and a number of committees have already taken up important municipal betterments,—for example those on highways, smoke abatement, taxation, street lighting, fire prevention, public health and child welfare.

Massachusets Civic League. In its annual report for the year ending October 31, 1912, most attention is paid to the problem of housing, including a discussion of housing laws and the report of the state housing committee. Other committee reports are on playgrounds and village improvements.

Boston Chamber of Commerce. Among the committee reports printed in the *Chamber of Commerce News* for November 18, 1912, may be noted those on municipal and metropolitan affairs (William Bennett Munro, Chairman), public health, and public utilities.

Woman's Municipal League of New York City. The Year Book for 1912 includes the annual report of the President, Mrs. E. R. Hewitt, and reports of the various committees and local branches of the league. Among the committee reports may be mentioned those on motion pictures, streets, the women's court and tenements.

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Coöperation and Marketing.—The Wisconsin state board of public affairs has published in four parts, dealing with agricultural coöperation, coöperative credit, municipal markets and distributive or store coöperation. The section on municipal markets includes chapters in European, Canadian and United States cities. A summary cites among the advantages of municipal markets: lower prices, fresher produce, better enforcement of sanitary regulations, inspection of food, accurate weights and measures, competition, revenue to the city, and increased demand for truck farms. But the author considers that the most important function of the municipal market will be as a supplement to the present retail system rather than as a substitute for it. He also finds that the character of the population has much to do with making a municipal public market a success, and that if the people value convenience more than lower prices, public markets are likely to be a failure.

Public Markets.—Under the direction of Mayor Blankenburg, Dr. C. L. King of the University of Pennsylvania has made a study of trolley light freight service and Philadelphia markets in their bearing on the cost of farm produce. The main recommendations of the report are:

1. Better through trolley freight service from farm to city;
2. Removal of restrictions on bona fide farmers wishing to sell their goods in Philadelphia;
3. Stringent regulation of existing markets, coupled with the development of municipal markets where needed;
4. The development of trolley freight terminals on different sections of the city; and

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[2] Volume 2, p. 111.

5. A thoroughgoing revision of the present transportation and distributing facilities.

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Iowa Applied History Series.—The State Historical Society of Iowa has begun the publication of a series of papers under the title of "Applied History." This will present a historical and comparative study of legislation on important topics of public interest at the present time. Volume I, already published, includes a brief statement of the series by B. F. Shambaugh, editor of the series, and short monographs on road legislation, by John E. Brindley; regulation of urban utilities, by E. H. Downey; primary elections, by F. E. Horack; corrupt practices legislation, by H. J. Peterson, work accident indemnity, by E. H. Downey; and taxation, by John E. Brindley. While giving special attention to legislation and conditions in Iowa, each paper also presents a comparative and critical analysis of the laws of other states, with a discussion of standards set by such laws. Mr. Downey's paper on the regulation of urban utilities will be of most interest to the readers of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW; and forms what is perhaps the best brief discussion of the recent movement towards state administrative control of such utilities.

DEPARTMENT OF REPORTS AND DOCUMENTS

II. BIBLIOGRAPHICAL

Edited by Miss Adelaide R. Hasse

Chief of the Division of Documents, New York Public Library

General

Minneapolis, Minn. Civic and Commerce Association. First annual report. October, 1912. 140 (1) p. 8°.

Montreal, Canada. Commercial review of the season ending 30th November, 1912, showing the export trade from the port of Montreal in Canadian products. 181 p. 8°.

Compiled by the Commercial department of *The Gazette*, Montreal.

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Hutchinson, R. W. The automobile in municipal service. (Municipal Engineering, November, 1912, p. 204–211, Illus.)

Roll call of cities operating automobiles. (Municipal Engineering, October, 1912, p. 238–251.)

Bibliography

London, England. County Council. List of official publications. December, 1912. 16th issue. 48 p. 12°.

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New York Public Library. List of city charters, ordinances, and collected documents in the New York Public Library. pp. 1–4. A—S. (Bulletin N. Y. Public Library, September, November, December, 1912; January, 1913.)

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Billboard and other forms of outdoor advertising.

Fosdick, Raymond B. Big billboards in big cities. (American City, December, 1912, p. 511–517.)

Address delivered at the eighth annual convention of the American Civic Association, Baltimore, December 1912. Mr. Fosdick, late commissioner of Accounts for New York City, made an elaborate report to the Mayor on bill boards in New York City, which was noticed in the October, 1912, number of this Review (p. 758).

Great Britain. Advertisements regulation act, 1913.

Text of and comment on this Act is printed in the Municipal Journal London, of February 12, 1913 p. 243.

Hoardings Control. An overture to the London Chamber of Commerce. (Municipal Journal, London, January 17, 1912, p. 73.)

Comment on a circular, also printed, issued by the London Chamber of Commerce in opposition to the crusade for municipal control of hoardings.

Hurt, C. B. High French tax on signboards. (Municipal Engineering, November, 1912, p. 264.)

The matter of a billboard tax is up for consideration by the board of supervisors of San Francisco. The proposed tax is ½ cent annually for each square foot. The tax met with so much opposition that an agreement was postponed for four weeks on January 30, 1913, and, at the time of writing no further advices were available. (See San Francisco Municipal Record, January 30, 1913, p. 5.)

The Montreal city council has passed a bye law regulating illuminated signs. (Municipal Journal, London, January 24, 1913, p. 114.)

Harrisburg, Penn., passed an ordinance regulating billboards which was protested and decided against the city. (Municipality, December, 1912, p. 72.)

Perhaps it is not out of place to refer here to the fact that the regulation of billboards, or outdoor

Note.—The editor of the National Municipal Review is happy to be able to announce that he will answer to the extent of his ability any questions requiring documentary research. He is able to make this announcement through the cordial co-operation of Miss Hasse, who has expressed her willingness to make the bibliography department a library service department for the National Municipal Review. All communications must be addressed to the editor of the National Municipal Review, North American Building, Philadelphia.

advertising, was brought before the people of Ohio for vote at the recent constitutional convention of that state. The vote on this, the 38th amendment, was 261,351 for and 262,440 against.

Cabstands

See also under "Finance," New York City.

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Hiatt, James S. The child, the school and the job. An address by James S. Hiatt, scretary of the Philadelphia Public Education Association. 1912. 12 p. 8°.

Reprinted from the City Club Bulletin, December 27, 1912. Address 1015 Witherspoon Building, Philadelphia.

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Newark, N. J. City plan commission. (Report no. 2) Preliminary report to the commission by Messrs. Ford and Goodrich. August, 1912. 24 p. 8°.

The first report is dated July, 1911, and comprises the text of the enabling act, members, officers, rules and outline of work.

Portland, Oregon. Greater Portland. Official organ of the Greater Portland Plans Association. Vol. 1, no. 1. February, 1913. 14 p. f°.

Address 86½ Seventh St., Portland Oreg., 5 cents the copy.

Puff, Charles F. The city plan of Newark, N. J. Report on the comprehensive planning of the metropolitan district of Greater Newark. Submitted to M. R. Sherrerd, chief engineer, department of public works. July, 1912. 52 p. maps, plans. 4°. (Newark, N. J., board of street and water commissioners).

Salem, Mass. City Plans commission. First annual report, December, 1912. 63 p., 1 map. 8°.

Commission Government

City Club of Cincinnati. Synopsis of discussion on January 18, 1913, on commission rule problems. (The Citizen's Bulletin, January 25, 1913.)

The participants were Henry Bruere of the municipal research bureau of New York City, Mayor Hunt of Cincinnati and Alfred Bettman.

Cost of Living

See also Markets.

Carter, J. F. Public markets and marketing methods. Suggestions for reducing the high cost of living, based on an inquiry into marketing conditions in 71 cities. (American City, February, 1913, p. 121–138, illus.)

The author is secretary of the San Antonio Chamber of Commerce.

City Club of Philadelphia. Bulletin. February, 17, 1913. v. 6, no. 12, p. 259–298.

Comprises discussion on prominent factors in the high cost of living. Among the participants were Prof. Irving Fisher, Mr. E. C. Spring of the Lehigh Valley Transit Company, Miss Mary E. Pennington, director of the food research laboratory, U. S. Bureau of Chemistry, Hon. C. C. Miller, Chairman New York municipal market committee and president of the borough of the Bronx, Mrs. Wm. B. Derr, president of the Housekeepers' League of Pennsylvania, and Prof. C. W. Thompson, director department of agriculture, University of Minnesota.

A very short time ago this subject would have been considered outside the domain of civics. To-day it is a conspicuous object of civic interest, chiefly from the point of view of handling food products.

New York State. Food Investigating Commission. Committee on Markets, Prices and Costs. Report. August 1, 1912. 76 p. 8°.

Address 404 Pearl street, New York City.

Electoral Reform

Chicago, Ill. Bureau of public efficiency. Growing cost of elections in Chicago and Cook County. December, 1912. 16 p., 2 leaves. 8°.

In sixteen years the annual expense has more than trebled. Abolition of city and judicial primaries and repeal of statutory provision making all primaries and election days legal holidays recommended. The monograph closes with a calendar of election events in Chicago in each year, 1911–1919, and a tabular presentation of election costs in Chicago each year 1895–1912.

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Mr. Rutherford is city attorney of Napa, Calif.

Excess Condemnation

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Mr. Long is city attorney for San Francisco.

Finance

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New York City. Department of finance. Budget classifications. Explanation indicating the articles which belong to each classification and giving the definition of "supplies," "equipment," and "materials," as used in the budget of 1913. 8 p. 8°.

New York City. Report of the commission on new sources of city revenue. Submitted to the Mayor, January 11, 1913. 116 p. 8°.

The members of the commission were the late Edgar J. Levey, Joseph F. Johnson, Wm. Jay Schieffelin; F. S. Tomlin, Robt. S. Binkerd and Robt. B. McIntyre, secretary. Among the recommendations are the adoption of the excess condemnation constitutional amendment which was defeated when submitted to the people of New York in 1911 by a vote of 254,095 for and 357,881 against out of a total vote of 1,112,546. A tax on advertising billboards is suggested not only as a revenue measure, but also as a regulative measure. The nominal charge now made for vault privileges under city streets is shown to be capable of yielding a very substantial revenue if a proper annual charge were made for the use of the city's subsurface. Increased payments to the city for cab stand privileges, the exaction by the city of its share of profits of subway conduit companies, increase in the fees of county offices, the sale by the city of garbage and waste removal privileges are others of the recommendations made. The most radical of the recommendations, that of the unearned increment tax, has aroused vigorous opposition.

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The committee in charge of the tests was composed of Prof. John H. Nelson, Case School of Applied Science, Mr. L. H. Miller, engineer, Bethlehem Steel Company, and Mr. William S. Lougee, architect, Cleveland, O.

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Bradford, England. Municipal progress in Bradford. (U. S. Daily Consular and Trade Reports December 26, 1912, p. 1566.)

At his installation on November 9, 1912, the new lord mayor of Bradford reviewed the progress of the city during the past 14 years. The facts printed in the report listed above are taken from the lord mayor's speech.

Chicago, Ill. Bureau of public efficiency. The office of sheriff of Cook County, Ill. A supplemental inquiry into its organization and methods of administration. November, 1912. 26 p. 8°.

—— Administration of the office of clerk of the county court of Cook County Ill. November, 1912. 43 p. 8°.

—— The office of clerk of the circuit court and the office of clerk of the superior court of Cook County, Ill. November, 1912. 27 p. 8°.

Address 315 Plymouth Court, Chicago. The purpose of the Chicago bureau of public efficiency is to scrutinize the systems of accounting in the eight local governments of Chicago, to examine the methods of purchasing materials and supplies and letting and executing construction contracts in these bodies, to examine the payrolls of these local governing bodies, to make constructive suggestions and to furnish the public with exact information.

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Typewritten document. Edmonton besides being the capital of Alberta, is the divisional and distributing point of three large railways, the Canadian Pacific, the Canadian Northern and Grand Trunk Pacific. It has a population of 57,045 (census of 1911) and that it is a progressive community there is no better evidence than in the increased assessment of land values, viz., $673,694 in 1892, $1,724,420 in 1902 and $123,512,580 in 1912. These assessments are on ground values only, there being no improvement, business, income or personal tax in Edmonton.

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Schaffer, Frank H. Eliminate national politics from municipal affairs. (Citizen's Bulletin, January 11, 1913, p. 4–5.)

Address before the Hamilton County Progressive League.

Home Rule

See also under "Taxation"; also under "Police."

Civic League, St. Louis, Mo. Home rule legislation. 14 p. 8°.

Report of a special committee of the League appointed by the executive board to examine the many proposals for so-called home rule for St. Louis. The committee is composed of Clifford B. Allen, J. L. Davis, Edw. C. Eliot, and Tyrrell Williams.

Housing Reform

See also under "City Planning."

Ball, Charles B. Health departments and housing. (American Journal of Public Health, January, 1913, p. 1–10.)

Markets

See also "Cost of Living."

Black, Mrs. Elmer. A terminal market system New York's most urgent need. Some observations, comments and comparisons of European markets. 1912. 32 p. illus. 8°.

Mrs. Black was a member of the advisory board of the New York terminal market commission.

Newark, N. J. City plan commission. Newark market problem. Report by Geo. B. Ford and E. P. Goodrich. August, 1912. 8 folios.

Milk Supply

New York City. Department of halth. The milk supply of New York City and its control by the department of health by E. J. Lederle, commissioner of health and R. Raynor, chief of division of food inspection. September, 1912. 79 p., illus. 8°.

Motion Picture Theatres

On March 6, 1913, there was introduced in the state legislature of New York a bill requiring moving picture theatres to be licensed in the same way as are the larger playhouses, taking this power away from the board of aldermen of the city of New York. The measure was requested by John D. Lindsay, tpresident of the New York Society for the Prevenion of Cruelty to Children.

The following list of moving picture magazines may be useful to libraries. Of American magazines there are The Motion Picture Story Magazine representing the licensed films. This magazine now in its fifth volume is published monthly at 26 Court Street, Brooklyn, N. Y., at $1.50 per year. The Moving Picture World, a quarto weekly, is published at 17 Madison Avenue, New York City at $3.00 per year. It is now in its fifteenth volume. Motography, is published bi-weekly by the Electricity Magazine Corporation, Monadnock Bldg., Chicago, at $2.00 per year. It is now in its ninth volume. The Moving Picture News, now in its seventh volume, is published in New York City. Moving Picture Stories represents the independent films. The Edison Kinetogram and the Vitograph Life Portrayals are house organs. In England there is The Byoscope and in Germany there are Der Kinematograph and Das Lichtbild Theatre.

Fisher, Boyd. Regulation of motion picture theaters. (Amercan City, December, 1912, p. 520–522.)

New York City. Committee on laws and legislation. Report on ordinances in relation to motion picture theatres in New York City. December, 1912. (City Record, December 19, 1912. p. 10408–10412.)

Municipal Reference Libraries

United States. Committee on the Library (senate). Legislative drafting bureau and legislative reference division of the library of Congress. Hearings. February 4, 1913. 145 p. 8°.

Of course this does not relate to a municipal reference library, but no one interested in municipal reference libraries can fail to be instructed by a reading of these hearings. Almost exactly a year before, on February 26 and 27, 1912, similar hearings were held before the House Committee on the Library. 114 p. 8°.

Greene, Charles S. Municipal reference library movement in the United States and especially in Oakland, Calif. (Pacific Municipalities, October, 1912, p. 461–467.)

Ordinances

See also under "Bibliography;" and "Traffic Regulation."

Pacific Municipalities (monthly) prints in each number a list of ordinances received, The Municipality, November–December, 1912, p. 79–80, prints the curfew ordinances of three Wisconsin cities, viz. Chippewa Falls, Superior and Platteville.

Attention is again directed to the weekly Public Health Reports, which contain the text of ordinances relating to public health, vital statistics, sanitation and food and drug regulation.

St. Louis, Mo. The revised code of St. Louis, 1912. By Edgar R. Rombauer. St. Louis. 1913. 4 p. l., 1285, xvp. 8°.

The last previous revision of the St. Louis code was that of 1907.

Playgrounds

Great Britain. Board of education. Report of the departmental committee appointed to inquire into certain questions in connection with the playgrounds of public elementary schools. London, 1912. 171 p. 8°.

Can be purchased through any bookseller. Price 8½d.

Gross, T. A. Chicago playgrounds (Municipal Engineering. October, 1912 p. 226–229.)

Teller, Sidney A. Chicago's recreation centers. (Municipal Engineering, November, 1912, p. 297–298.)

Police

City Club of Philadelphia. (Bulletin. December 5, 1912, v. 6, no. 4, p. 79–91.)

Confined to consideration of "Forward steps in the policing of Philadelphia," with remarks by Mrs. Wells, woman police officer of Los Angeles, the Rev. Henry Berkowitz, member of the Philadelphia vice commission, and the Hon. Geo. D. Porter, director of the departmet of public safety, Philadelphia.

New York City. Police Department Investigation Committee. Preliminary legislative report of special committee of the Board of Aldermen of the City of New York. 20 p. 8°.

The report of the Curran Committee. It was made public on March 9, 1913. The preliminary report is made at this time in order that it may be available during the present session of the Legislature. Chief among the recommendations of the committee are home rule in the administration of the Police Department and of excise regulation. The committee expresses opposition to the transfer of vice suppression from the Police Department to a Department of Public Morals, as well as to the establishment of a Board of Social Welfare. The final report of the committee, which will be completed late in April, will contain a summary of the entire investigation of the committee. This has extended over a period of six months.

United States. Census Bureau. Police statistics for cities. February 4, 1913. 2 sheets.

Number of employees, officers, sergeants, patrolmen and detectives, amount of appropriations, per capital cost per year, average number of patrolmen per 10,000 inhabitants, area in acres and number of patrolmen to 1000 acres, for 19 American cities. Statistics are for the last fiscal year only.

Port Development

CALIFORNIA. Commonwealth Club. Transactions, vol. 7, no. 6, December, 1912, p. 515-554.

Largely devoted to addresses and discussions on state vs. local control of harbors.

NEW YORK CITY. Department of docks and ferries. Plans for freight terminal systems at South Brooklyn and west side lower Manhattan with explanatory statement as to each. September, 1912. 11 p., 3 maps. 8°.

Report no. 21 of the numbered series of reports of this department.

—— Department of docks and ferries. Plans for freight terminal facilities and equipment thereof, along south Brooklyn water-front. February 10, 1913. (City Record, February, 26, 1913, p. 1618-1619.)

Public Health

See also under Housing Reform.

NEW YORK CITY. Department of health. Monthly bulletin, December, 1912. p. 293-320. 8°.

Almost the entire number is taken up with comment on two recent judicial decisions upholding the police power of the New York City Health board. The decisions are those of Justice Russell rendered in court of special sessions of New York City, November term, 1912, concerning the cleaning of milk receptacles, and of Justice Seabury in the New York supreme court, appellate term October, 1912, concerning slaughter-house odors. The text of each opinion is printed in full.

Public Utilities

REED, R. W. The relation of municipal public utility corporations to the public. (Pacific Municipalities, December, 1912, p. 646-655.)

Mr. Reed is a member of the city council of Los Angeles.

Public Works

BOSTON, Mass. Public works department. Annual report for the year 1911. Boston, 1912. xi, 584 p. folding tables, maps and an organization chart.

This is the first report of this Department which was created by Ordinances of 1910, chap. 9, and is a consolidation of the engineering, water and street departments. The engineering department, which had been in operation since 1867, had made 44 annual reports at the time of the merger, the street department had existed since 1895 and had made 20 annual reports, and the water department had operated since 1895 and had 15 annual reports to its credit. Mr. L. K. Rourke is commissioner of the new board.

Schools

MOORE, ERNEST C. How New York City administers its schools. A constructive study. Yonkers, N. Y. 1913 x, 321 p. 8°.

Professor Moore's report was noted in the preceding list of this department. The report was made to the committee on school inquiry of the board of estimate and apportionment of the city of New York. The committee rejected the report, but published it, omitting the final chapter, in the City Record. The text of the report as described above, is now printed in its entirety.

Sewage Disposal

GREAT BRITAIN. Royal commission on sewage disposal. Eighth report of the commissioners appointed to inquire and report what methods of treating and disposing of sewage (including any liquid from any factory or manufacturing process) may properly be adopted. Standards and tests for sewage and sewage effluents discharging into rivers and streams. Vol. 1. Report. 1912. 17 p. f°.

Command no. 6464, price 3d. The commission, as at present constituted, comprises Lord Iddesleigh, chairman, T. Walter Harding, William Ramsay, W. H. Power, T. J. Stafford, R. A. Tatton, F. J. Willis, and R. H. H. Keenlyside, secretary.

Smoke Abatement

HASKIN, F. J. Smoke abatement—Europe leads the world. (Citizens' Bulletin, January 4, 1913, p. 1-2.)

Social Evil

BONAPARTE, CHARLES J. The social evil. (Citizen's Bulletin, January 25, 1913, p. 1-2.)

City Club of Chicago. (Bulletin. November 18, 1912, p. 343–349.)

Contains an address by the Hon. Geo. Cosson, state's attorney for Cook County, Ill., on "Newer Methods of Dealing with Commercialized Vice."

Portland, Oreg. Vice commission. Report of the commission to the mayor and city council of Portland, January 1913. 216 p. 8°.

This is the fourth and final report of the commission. The volume includes the 1st-3d reports, which were also published separately.

United States. District of Columbia committee (Senate). Abatement of houses of ill fame. Hearings before a subcommittee. December 9 and 19, 1912, and January 7, 1913. 85 p., 1 Rap. 8°.

Willson, Robert N. The eradiction of the social diseases in large cities (Journal of the American Medical Assoc., Sept. 21, 1912. p. 924-928.

Also reprinted in pamphlet form.

Statistics

Tokio, Japan. Ninth annual statistics of the city of Tokio. Compiled by the statistical department, the Tokio municipal office. 1912. 955 p. 8°.

In English and Japanese.

Street Railways

Edinburgh, Scotland. Burgh engineer's office. Report on various systems of tramway traction. September, 1912. 10 p. f°.

Wisconsin. Railroad commission. The City of Milwaukee vs. The Milwaukee Electric Railway and Light Company. Decided August 23, 1912. Opinion and decision. 369 p. 8°.

Streets

Kellogg, D. D. Physical records of street cleaning service and the value of uniform accounting. (Pacific Municipalities, November 1912, p. 539–542.)

Mr. Kellogg is auditor and assessor of Pasadena.

Simmons, Fred G. Paving experience of Milwaukee, (Municipality, November–December, 1912, p. 59–70,)

Address delivered before the fourteenth annual convention of the League of Wisconsin Municipalities, July, 1912. Mr. Simmons is commissioner of public works of Milwaukee.

Tillson, George W. Street pavements—Selection, care and maintenance. (American City, December, 1912, p. 545–551.)

From a paper presented at the American Road Congress, Atlantic City, October, 1912.

Taxation

Heydecker, E. L. Municipal finances and taxation. (Pacific Municipalities, October, 1912. p. 508–515.)

Mr. Heydecker is assistant tax commissioner for New York City and secretary of the New York State Conference on Taxation.

Kierstadt, W. C. Reform in local taxation by the taxation of the land. (Canadian Municipal Journal. December, 1912. p. 489–492.)

Address before the seventh annual convention of New Brunswick Municipalities. Professor Kierstad is of the faculty of the University of New Brunswick.

Preston, England. Borough treasurer's office. Rates levied in various towns 1912–13. (28th annual statement.) 13 p. 4°.

Rates of 86 towns in England and Wales, together with charges for gas, water and electricity; also profits and losses on municipal undertakings by which rates in those towns have been reduced or increased.

Wilson, J. S. Home rule in taxation. (Pacific Municipalities. January, 1913. p. 20–35, 1 d. February, p. 63–67.)

Address before the fifteenth annual convention of the League of California Municipalities. Mr. Wilson is mayor of Berkeley, Calif.

Traffic Regulation

A synopsis of the recent Cincinnati vehicle ordinance, including automobiles, is printed in Municipal Engineering, December, 1912, p. 388–389.

Hudson, N. Y. An ordinance to regulate traffic on the public streets. 1912. 11 p. 12°.

Lewis, William Y. Train, bus,—or "continuous transit." (Municipal Journal, London, February 7, 1913, p. 175-177.)

The London traffic problem having become a political question, the literature on the subject has grown. The above paper while not long, gives a good résumé of the situation.

Traffic on streets and roads. Proposed standard method for recording and comparisons. (American City, December, 1912, p. 553-559.)

Water Supply

Council Bluffs, Ia. Board of water works trustees. First annual report for 1912. 38 p., 21 plates. 8°.

Report for the first year of municipal ownership. It summarizes the municipalization of the plant and the organization of the new board.

BOOK REVIEWS

The Government of American Cities. By William Bennett Munro, Ph.D., LL.B. New York: The Macmillan Company.

American City Government. By Charles A. Beard. New York: The Century Company.

These two volumes form important additions to the already extensive literature on municipal affairs in this country. And the scope and variety of the subject is well illustrated by noting that these books not only supply such information not hitherto available, but also, while bearing similar titles, offer marked contrasts to each other in the topics discussed, in their method of treatment and in their literary style.

Professor Munro uses the term government in contrast to administration, and states that his aim is to describe the machinery or framework of municipal organization. In fact he does more than analyze the anatomical structure; and discusses also what President Lowell calls the physiology—and also the pathology—of the principal organs of municipal government. After introductory chapters on municipal development and the social structure of the city, he treats of the legal position and powers of cities, municipal politics, the council, the mayor, the principles of administrative organization, commission government, direct legislation and municipal reform. These topics are discussed with more thoroughness than in any other work covering the whole of this field; and the presentation throughout bears the stamp of the scientific observer.

While the work thus deals with both the constitution and procedure of the political organism, it does so as a biologist would analyze the structure and conduct of plants and animals, without considering the external results of these activities in relation to economic and social problems. This limitation is however recognized by the author; and another volume on administration is promised to present this phase of the subject.

Professor Beard's book from one point of view has a broader scope, but in other respects is more limited. The distinctively political phases are treated briefly in four chapters; and the greater part of the volume discusses the economic and social problems of the modern city, with chapters on such topics as finances, police control, public utilities, public health, education and city planning. Moreover as indicated in the subtitle, "a survey of newer tendencies," only the most recent developments in connection with the various topics are discussed. The purpose of the author seems to be to present selective illustrations for the general reader, rather than to give a comprehensive analysis for the more serious student.

The contrast in literary style is not between good and bad—for both authors display distinct literary ability which other writers may envy. It is rather between distinctive styles, each adapted to the author's general method of treatment. Professor Munro's scientific discussion is not cumbered with statistics or technical terms; but is presented with the clear and dignified diction of the modern Harvard school of English. Professor Beard's language has a lighter touch, that befits an instructor in the new Pullitzer school of journalism.

From the point of view of the university teacher of municipal government, these books will take a leading place among the works used in connection with courses in this subject; and the differences in content and method make them complementary rather than competing volumes. But neither in itself will be adequate as a suitable text book for a comprehensive and systematic university course.

John A. Fairlie.
University of Illinois.

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The New Immigration. By Peter Roberts. New York: The Macmillan Company, pp. 386, $1.60.

The present unsettled condition of southeastern Europe gives an added interest to this book. Since the early eighties immigration into the United States has shifted from northwestern to southeastern Europe introducing into this country masses of new people far removed from American standards and creating a serious task in the work of assimilation. The author is sympathetic in his study of the quality, industrial efficiency, social life and the relation of the new people to the native born population, and his book shows an optimistic vein of belief that the new immigrants need chiefly systematic direction and sympathetic treatment to make them a highly useful asset to the country.

If a line is drawn from the northwestern corner of Minnesota to the southwestern corner of Illinois and then eastward to the Atlantic, passing between the cities of Washington and Baltimore, we cut off less than one-fifth of the area of the United States but in it is found more than 80 per cent of the new immigration. Thirty-two of the fifty cities of 100,000 or more population in the United States are found in this territory and the new aliens are found in every city of the angle. These cities are the hives whence industrial and manufactured products are sent in a continuous stream to enrich this and other nations, and the one great factor that has made possible the industrial development of this part of the United States is the inflow of 80 per cent of the new immigration coming to America. The brawn and sinew of the peoples of the Danube, the Carpathian mountains, southern Russia, the Balkan states and the Italian peninsula have been freely drawn upon to man mine, mill, shop, factory and railroad, and never did any civilized nation get an army of more docile, industrious and efficient workers. As the men of the new immigration reside in industrial centers, they can easily be reached, for the remedies for the evils incident to their coming are more available in populous centers than elsewhere. In the cities are to be found the best brains, the highest executive ability and the greatest concentration of the wealth of the nation. These are the tools with which to wage war upon the superstitions and ignorance of the immigrants, the uncleanness, the unsanitary, overcrowded dwellings of the aliens, the helplessness and inefficiency of the foreigners' homes. "Another twenty-five years of conditions too common in congested quarters of the large industrial cities," the author says, "will bring a slum situation that will be a check to progress and a menace to our industrial peace. The best prevention is to cure the present condition of the representatives of the backward races now in the tenements of our cities."

The chapters of the book dealing with the part they play in the industries of the United States, the way they live in the American cities and the manner in which they are treated by the native born are especially interesting.

Murray Gross.
Drexel Institute, Philadelphia.

Guida degli Stati Uniti per l'Immigrante Italiano. Pubblicata a cura della Società delle Figlie della Rivoluzione Americana, Sezione di Connecticut. By John Foster Carr. New York: Doubleday, Page and Company, 1910, pp. 85, paper, 15 cents. Also Polish version, 1912, and Yiddish version, 1912.

Under the auspices of the Connecticut Daughters of the American Revolution, Mr. Carr has prepared a guide to the United States for the use of immigrants of various nationalities. The versions in Italian, Polish and Yiddish have been received for review. In special ways each of these versions has been adapted to meet peculiar needs of the nationality directly concerned, but the Italian version will illustrate the general contents and character of the guide.

The little volume is filled with just the information the immigrant needs, stated concisely but with sufficient detail. Among the many matters discussed and explained are the immigration law and the system of inspection, the various immigrant aid societies, public and private employment offices, methods of travel in the United States, the school system and other educational and cultural opportunities, ways of buying or renting land on advantageous terms, location and characteristics of Italian agricultural colonies, physical geography and government of the United States, advantages of citizenship and method of naturalization, the laws of the country most likely to concern an immigrant, precautions to preserve health and facilities for the treatment of injuries and diseases, savings institutions and methods of transferring money, the postal and telegraph system and rates, and Italian diplomatic and consular representation in the United States. There are appended useful tables of money, weights, and measures, and also a map of the United States. The guide is well illustrated, containing as its frontispiece a picture of the President of the United States, and including also several illustrations of occupational training work in the New York schools.

The work deserves especial commendation for the wholesome advice it gives the immigrant. He is urged to learn the English language, and helpful suggestions are made as to the ways and means. To speak English, he is informed, is to make progress toward the better paid occupations. He is also advised to see to it that his children go to the public schools regularly, and the opportunities for them in manual training and trade schools are explained to him.

Stress is placed upon the great desirability of country life. Wealth and health, says the guide, are to be found in the country. The newcomer should establish himself there with his family and buy land. How this may best be done is told in detail, especial attention being called to the chances afforded by abandoned farms in New York and New England. Several pages are devoted to a description of Italian agricultural colonies in various parts of the United States.

The immigrant is encouraged to become a citizen, and the steps in the naturalization process are explained. From the handbook he can obtain such essential information about the relative position and powers of federal and state governments, and about the various governmental organs, as will qualify him for admission to citizenship.

About fifteen pages of the guide are devoted to the laws of the United States. The sketch of the laws of the land, as affecting an immigrant, is simple but remarkably comprehensive. Strong emphasis is placed upon the matter of obedience to law. Special attention is directed to such laws as those forbidding lotteries, compelling school attendance, restricting child labor, and prohibiting the carrying of concealed weapons and the sending of threatening letters.

The community at large will profit by the observance of the directions regarding health and hygiene here given to the immigrant. One who is familiar with the ordinary habits of Italian laborers will find a flavor of humor in this serious advice. The immigrant is told to keep his person clean, to eat well, to drink pure water, to avoid bad habits, to bathe, and to guard against flies; he is informed that, "In America it never does any harm to sleep with the windows open."

Taken as a whole, the guide is truly the immigrant's *vade mecum*. Such a book ought to have been written long ago. It anticipates the problems and difficulties the newcomer is sure to meet, and gives him counsel which, if followed, will save him from many blunders and will greatly increase his value to his adopted country. May the volume have the widest possible circulation! No work could be more appropriate for Daughters of the American Revolution than the patriotic service involved in giving support to a publication of this nature.

William H. Glasson.

Trinity College, North Carolina.

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Civics for Americans in the Making. By Anna A. Plass, New York: D. C. Heath and Company, 1912, pp. viii. 187.

When this unique little book was turned over to me for review I soon discovered that no opinion concerning it would be of value that was not the outcome of its actual use with those for whom it was intended. Accordingly, the book was at once turned over to Mr. J. J. Maioriello, a recent graduate of the Philadelphia School of Pedagogy, who for over two years has been conducting with splendid success a class in citizenship with Italian imigrants at the Social Service Settlement House, Philadelphia.

After several weeks of constant use of the text Mr. Maioriello writes the following appreciative letter, which amply confirms the favorable opinion one gets from a mere reading of the book.

The twofold aim, as shown in Plass's *Civics*, is (1) to help teach the foreigner the language so that he may earn his living more easily; (2) to make him a more desirable citizen, by making him acquainted with the manners, customs and laws of this country. The material is adapted to the varied intellectual development and educational progress of the pupils. The form in which the lessons are written makes them adaptable to a class where the pupils are of unequal ability, with the result that everybody takes part in the work.

The pupils gain confidence. The lessons are so constructed that by their very nature they promote conversation. They are all arranged in short concise sentences, the authors seeming well aware of the fact that to foreigners the reading of long sentences is very difficult.

One advantage is the introduction of a practical vocabulary, containing English equivalents in Italian, German, Swedish, French, Polish, Greek and Yiddish. It presents carefully selected words, such as are in every day use, and which familiarize the pupils with their environment. But very often the one meaning of a word is not sufficient properly to convey the ideas contained in different sentences. However, this helps to encourage the individuality of the teacher.

The "true to life" pictures are of inestimable value in helping the pupils to grasp ideas. Their use forms a very important part in the teaching of foreigners. The illustrations are in keeping with the subject matter.

The lessons are regularly graded, with progressive steps—dealing with the simple story of community life, and then leading to the larger field of state and nation."

Besides enabling the foreigner to understand the English language the book helps him to become acquainted with his American environment. He recognizes himself as a part of the community—of the country's rule—he helps to elect officers—to make, explain, and execute the laws, etc. Thus the study of *Civics* commands the interest of all, with an appeal of "patriotism."

J. Lynn Barnard.

Philadelphia.

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Child Labor in City Streets. By Edward N. Clopper, Ph.D. New York: 1912, The MacMillan Company, $1.25.

This book shows the extent of street trading in America and Europe, its effects, its regulation in Europe and the struggle for regulation here. It is a convincing and concise account based on four years of field work by Dr. Clopper, the secretary of the National Child Labor Committee for the Mississippi Valley States.

The problem of the street working children and its relation to other problems, the extent to which children engage in street activities in America and Europe, newspaper sellers, bootblacks, peddlers and market children, messengers, errand and delivery children, effects of street work, the relation of street work to delinquency, and trades regulation—these are the main subjects of the volume. To this is added a good bibliography, appendices containing, among other things, the law of Wisconsin relative to street trading and the bylaws adopted by the London county council, and an index. Numerous tables throughout the volume enforce the discussion and add to its usefulness as a general work.

The "street trades" of newspaper selling, peddling and bootblacks are as yet almost untouched by legislation in the United States for there are only a few state laws and municipal ordinances relative to this matter; and those states that have prohibited the employment of children under fourteen years of age "in any gainful occupation" have been hampered by the courts which have often construed the word "employ" to mean the purchasing of the services of one person by another. Children who work on the streets on their own account do not, therefore, enjoy the protection of such statutes. In other words a legal distinction has been made between children working for *wages* and those working for *profits*. This distinction the author considers ill-advised. His investigations lead him to the conclusion that children working for profits are in even greater need of regulation than those under the control of an employer. In both cases the effects have been morally and materially deteriorating. This is shown by reports and compilations from various cities. For example a report on the house of refuge of New York City shows that 63 per cent of its inmates had been street traders of whom 32 per cent were newsboys. Another report, compiled from different cities, shows that a majority of street traders are backward in school. Truancies, delinquencies, bad habits, petty crimes and often gross immoralities are directly traceable to street work. It should, therefore, be subject to stringent laws and undertaken jointly with the movement to supply playground facilities.

The book is an earnest appeal for reform and in it Dr. Clopper proposes a constructive remedy which not only strikes at the exploitation of children, but makes a real contribution to the problem of adults who are physically unfit to earn their living in other ways. The work is of practical service to all who are working for child welfare, particularly in the forty states whose legislatures are now in session. Incidentally it also again reminds us of how far we are behind Europe in laws providing for the conservation of human resources.

KARL F. GEISER.

Oberlin College.

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MODERN PHILANTHROPY. A Study of Efficient Appealing and Giving. By William H. Allen. New York: Dodd, Mead and Company, 1912.

The phrase in the sub-title, "efficient appealing and giving," would make a clearer name for this work than the one it bears. It is based on a study of 6000 letters of appeal to Mrs. E. H. Harriman, made in 1910 and 1911 by the bureau of municipal research, of which Dr. Allen is director. Dr. Allen considers such letters "much too valuable for the waste-basket," and follows out his own suggestion (p. 282) of a bureau which shall "read letters of appeal, not reluctantly but with avidity" to see what lesson or opportunity they may have. The lesson of the letters is not, however, made very clear in this book. They are often catalogued with a detail that is tiresome though relieved by the author's scent for what is comical. The book is exasperating in this detail, but it is also full of valuable and sometimes compact suggestions on the neglected subject of appealing and giving.

The chief suggestion of the book is for a national "coöperative clearing house for givers and appealers," which would serve both classes, for a fee, as a consulting adviser, or as a Dun's or Bradstreet's agency; or, we might add, as a Baedeker, to tell appealers and givers where they should go, and how to get there. Efficiency is certainly needed in these directions, and will be promoted by a study of this book, but at times the reader feels like the Harvard professors who resented successfully a recent effort to introduce efficiency schedules into their work. Dr. Allen speaks often of the need of a complete list, or in his favorite phrase, a 100 per cent list, "of the things remaining to be done," in Chicago or elsewhere, though only omniscience could furnish such a list. He does well to urge the importance of scrupulous honesty in appeals, without exaggeration; and he expresses vigorously his preference for prevention rather than cure in the sentence: "Failure to enforce health laws is a more serious menace to health and morals than drunkenness and tobacco cancer" (p. 384). A sentence on the page following this will strike most readers as extreme: "The schools are probably injuring the physical, mental and moral health of more children every year than private philanthropies are relieving in a generation."

Mrs. Harriman's short preface is excellent and inspiring. She wishes that charity and philanthropy might be made to mean "loving one's neighbor as one's self, and doing one's utmost to insure equal opportunity for all to become efficient," and speaks with approval of the reaction from intense individualism to efficient government for the benefit of all.

Frederic Almy.

Buffalo.

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Municipal Work from a Christian Standpoint. By A. W. Jephson, A. M. London: A. R. Mowbray and Company Ltd., 18*d.* net; cloth, 2*s.* net.

Such a title as the above will no doubt seem to many as absurd as a discussion of Christian chemistry. But, as one of the "Christian Social Union Handbooks," the study is simply designed to set forth the duty of Christian men to be zealous and useful as members of the community. Not more than a dozen pages are devoted to the grounds upon which the appeal is made. The volume as a whole is an intelligent and restrained statement of municipal opportunity, and of the need of the citizen's watchfulness and support of local boards. The latter is reminded that these boards are representative, and "the breath of their nostrils is public opinion," and that he is responsible for the formation of an opinion that will embody the social conscience. It is significant that such matters should be recognized as religious concerns. It is the outcome of the modern conception of Christian service as finding its characteristic expression in social service.

This, however, indicates merely the atmosphere of the study. The general thesis is that the well-being of the community is tested by the smallness of the number of those who suffer at the bottom of the social scale. Under the three divisions of public health, public works, and public services, is given a highly encouraging record of recent English municipal progress. The idea of the duties of the local authority has greatly developed, as is shown by the number of services in which it now accepts responsibility, which were formerly disregarded or left to individual initiative. A classified list of the powers and duties of the London County Council covers 151 details, and is suggestive of what a municipality can do and may be called on to do. Among the many matters in which the community is understood to owe some duty to the citizen may be selected sanitation, women inspectors, adulteration and public analysts, infant life, town planning, fair wages and hours, unemployment, and small holdings. In each of these, ways are suggested in which the vigilance of the citizen may keep the authorities up to their work. Although naturally confined to English conditions, we find something familiar in the references to the occasional absence of civic pride, and also to the common attitude towards an increase of local taxation whose social benefits are so immediate and tangible. The chief value of the book is its history of the enlargement of the spheres within which the municipality is now expected to be active; for this is the *differentia* of the present-day idea of municipal function and obligation.

George C. Foley.
Philadelphia, Pa.

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A Textbook on Roads and Pavements. By Frederick P. Spalding, Professor of Civil Engineering, University of Missouri. Fourth edition, revised and enlarged. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1912, pp. xi + 408, illustrated, $2.00.

In his preface to the original edition of this book (issued in 1894), the author stated its purpose by remarking that "successful practice in the construction of highways must depend upon correct reasoning of elementary principles in each instance, rather than upon following definite rules or methods of construction." He said that the aim of his book would be, then, to provide a brief discussion of the engineering principles involved in highway work, "and to outline the more important systems of construction."

Whatever the permanency of engineering principles, systems of construction change, and it is because of that fact that new editions of this book have had to be considerably re-written to keep them up to date. During the last few years especially, advances have been rapid in the methods of constructing and maintaining highways. Changes in the character of traffic due to the introduction of automobiles have created new problems, while, as the author remarks, "modifications in the standards of life both in city and country render the old methods no longer satisfactory to the public." In the present edition, for example, entirely new chapters have been added on bituminous, macadam and concrete pavements, while the chapters on brick, asphalt and wood pavements have been considerably modified. These additions and changes have increased the size of the volume, but with its thin paper and small pages it is still a handy and convenient little book. Of its value, it is hardly necessary for a reviewer to speak. The successive editions and the continued demand for it nearly twenty years after its first printing are sufficient evidence of that.

The principal defect in the volume is its lack of an index. In a book of this kind, for which the largest use—outside of the class room—must be for quick reference, an index is of such importance that it is a pity it was not included in the new edition. The chapter subheads in the table of contents cover many points, but are by no means complete. Thus in chapter iv, on "Improvement and Maintenance of Country Roads," so important a discussion as that on the crown—a discussion containing specific and valuable comment—is not separately listed. This is true, also, of gutters, earth settlement, varieties of scrapers, etc., all of which are included under the one sub-head "Grade and Cross Section." One would like, moreover, to be able to refer to illustrations, to the concrete examples cited, or to authorities quoted, but there is no index of illustrations and no listing of examples or authorities in the chapter sub-heads.

There can also be criticism of the author's final chapter, which is devoted to city streets. His statements as to desirable width for both the streets and pavements of cities, is rather sweeping, a little Western perhaps in its viewpoint, and not quite in line with the best modern judgment. But this criticism applies only to a paragraph or so, in a chapter which is somewhat apart from the main thesis of the volume. The book as a whole is rich in practical advice, briefly and accurately given.

Charles Mulford Robinson.
Rochester, N. Y.

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Trees in Winter: Their Study, Planting, Care and Identification. By Albert Francis Blakeslee, Ph.D., Professor of Botany and Director of Summer School, Connecticut Agricultural College, and Chester Deacon Jarvis, Ph.D., Horticulturist Storrs Experiment Station. New York: The Macmillan Company, $2.00.

The title of this book is explained by its authors in the introduction to be much more comprehensive than its phraseology indicates. It does, to be sure, discuss trees in winter, but from the standpoint of considering trees in their dormant condition, and in all the relations they sustain in that condition.

There is presented a comprehensive analytical key, a description of species, with excellent illustrations, and trees and shrubs broadly are treated in its pages.

The chapters on the structure, propagation, selection, planting, care, injuries, parasites and diseases of trees are excellent, but to readers of the National Municipal Review the principal interest will be in the chapters on "Tree Planting in Rural Districts" and on "Tree Planting in Towns and Cities." These are comprehensive and modern, and include not only suggestions and directions, but desirably strong arguments for better treatment of trees and for municipal control of them in cities. Lists of trees for special purposes and places are included, as, for instance, those resistant to smoke, those best for avenues, for seaside planting, for dry situations, for wet soils, etc. The work is thus well adapted to promote the proper estimation and the proper handling of the trees, which, even under our present hit-or-miss methods, are absolutely essential to comfort in civilization.

Mechanically the book is not up to the average of the publications of the Macmillans. It is unnecessarily heavy and bulky, and the printing of the illustrations does not parallel the excellence of the text.

The book should be in every municipal library, and would be of service not only to those charged with the handling of trees in cities, but to those interested in them.

J. Horace McFarland.
Harrisburg, Pa.

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Fire Prevention. By Edward F. Croker. New York: Dodd, Mead and Company, $1.50.

Any contribution to the discussion of a subject so vitally affecting every human interest as fire prevention, even though it does nothing more than present well known facts and principles from another standpoint, should be welcomed.

In *Fire Prevention*, by Edward F. Croker, the former chief of the New York Fire Department, the principal prevalent safeguards against loss of property and life by fire, are discussed in a readable manner, based on his long experience as a fire fighter. While the purpose of the book includes the description of what the author considers the most effective means of extinguishment, the more important message he would convey is the necessity of preventing the outbreak of fires.

We may not be prepared to accept the author's conclusions as to the necessity of additional laws, the means to be adopted in enforcing such laws or the efficacy and adequacy of the proposed improvements of present safeguards, but we cannot too strongly commend for a careful perusal the chapters dealing with the all-important topic known to insurance men as housekeeping. On account of its simplicity and ease of observance, it is a matter too readily overlooked. If every one in any way interested in the safe management of a household, workshop or business establishment (and who is not so interested?) could not only read but thoroughly absorb and practice the simple suggestions made in the first chapter, a long step will have been taken toward a reduction of the fire hazard.

It is probably not realized that the fire loss of this country, if saved for two years, would more than pay the entire cost of the Panama Canal. Nor is it generally appreciated that most of this enormous loss originates from trivial causes. In most instances, these causes are preventable; the author even goes so far as to say that every fire is preventable. And, generally speaking, fire prevention is secured by proper housekeeping. In stating in a pamphlet published in 1900 that "the only persons who can prevent loss by fire are the owners or occupants of the premises" Mr. Edward Atkinson, one of the greatest exponents of fire prevention, has long since placed the responsibility where it properly belongs.

Rudolph P. Miller.

New York.

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The Law of Light. By R. G. Nicholson Combe. Philadelphia: Cromarty Law Book Company, $7.50.

Combe's *Law of Light* is a book on the easement of light, giving its history and its present-day form and content in England, which cannot fail to be of interest to every lawyer, who desires to grasp the underlying principles and historical accidents which have made existing positive law what it is, as well as to every citizen, who hopes to take an intelligent interest or exercise a reasoned influence on the branch of municipal reform with which it deals. The law of ancient lights has never existed in America, a fact which gives a freer rein in the matters of urban aëration including the apportionment of air and light, which is so cognate a subject. But, while this freedom is to be taken advantage of, it should not lead us into the mistake of making hasty legislation without close study of the experience of a nation, which has struggled with the question for four centuries. Perhaps, the English conclusion, reached in *Colls vs. Home and Colonial Stores* (1904 A. C. 179), where the right to light was placed upon the right of the owner of a building to non-interference with the light coming over a servient tenement and needed for the use of his building, acquired by grant or prescription, in other words, making the question one of nuisance, is not as broad a rule as should be the goal of a legislature unhampered by precedents in a country, where landmarks are constantly changing, and where building operations present physical aspects very different from those in England, but the difficulties met in the English cases should be known by all who are interested in the subject in order that they may be avoided at the start. Some of these difficulties, under the guise of erroneous interpretations of common law were over-ruled by the decision of the court of appeals. Many of them are upheld by the well-meaning, but too enthusiastic and unversed propounders of law providing for the aëration and lighting (by the sun) of the tenements of American cities. These theories, which have been proved impracticable (technically not held to be law) include the belief that the *quantum* of light depends upon the amount used or needed. That is, that a jeweler can demand better light than an innkeeper. It has been held that an owner of a lot in a city is entitled *qua* his building to reasonable light. This decision has not been avoided by forced constructions of the adjective, but has consistently been enforced as providing against an increase or diminution of light, because of the occupation of the owner of the dominant tenement. Another such belief leading into difficulties, bases the right upon the windows or apertures. This, of course is wrong in principle, as a right exists *qua* a building, and is a right of the owner to have access to a reasonable amount of light, not a right to have a definite column of air.

The object of Combe's work, however, was not future legislation for municipal improvement, but past legislation in England. His work is of interest to the American municipal reformer only indirectly, as a thorough treatise on the law of ancient lights in England, the litigations under which throw light on the difficulties of legal control of urban aëration. But his treatise cannot be commended too highly as a law-book. It reviews all the cases; is written in polished and clear English. Its construction is logical and helpful. Dealing first with easements in general (cap. i), he then takes up the content of the easement of light (cap. ii). His next chapters are concerned with the creation of the right, by grant, implication of law, and prescription. Before considering the last origin of the right, which he divides into two chaptes, one before the prescription act (cap. vi) and one after (cap. vii) he treats prescription generally (cap. v), as he treated easements generally before he considered the easement of light particularly. The extinguishment and variation of light easements are given one chapter (cap. viii) and the last (cap. ix) is devoted to remedies.

John Lisle.[1]

Some Chemical Problems of Today. By Robert Kennedy Duncan. New York: Harper and Brothers, $2.

It would hardly be too much to say that the number of chemists capable of writing attractive and comprehensible magazine articles on their science may be counted on the fingers of one hand without going beyond the thumb. In other words Mr. Duncan comes near to having a monopoly of the field he has made his own, the popular interpretation of recent scientific discoveries. Notwithstanding the fact that more chemistry is being taught then ever before, it still remains even for the majority of those who have studied it a dark and esoteric science, remote from the affairs of everyday life. "Philosophy does not bake bread" and most people think the same of chemistry. Not so Professor Duncan, for one of his "industrial fellows in the University of Kansas earned his Ph.D. by discovering a commercial process for making "salt-rising" bread, one of the cherished secrets of the western housewife. Professor Duncan is a second Rumford in his zeal to draft chemistry into the service of men and in particular to utilize the unconsidered trifles which now go into the scrap heap and the garbage can of the cities and the county. His saving soul has been worried by the thousands of carloads of oranges and lemons left to rot under the trees or thrown into the sea because they were over-ripe or under-ripe or slightly bruised. This wasted fruit, he knew, contained essential oils and citric acid which could be used to flavor food or drink if they could be extracted and purified. So he set his young men in the University of Pittsburgh at work on the problem and we learn from his own lips since this volume appeared that the problem has been solved and the wealth of the country enriched; doubly enriched, if the old proverb holds that "a penny saved is tuppence earned."

The system of industrial fellowships invented by Professor Duncan is explained in this volume, not from the standpoint of what it might accomplish, but of what it has accomplished in four years' experience in the way of bringing the problems of the manufactory into the laboratory and in bringing the knowledge of the university to the aid of industry. Beginning with a timid appropriation of $500 a year from a laundry firm for researches in the chemistry of that business he now has offers of $5000 a year for capable young men to devote their time and to utilize the facilities of the university for the improvement of manufacturing processes. Besides the bread and oranges already mentioned Professor Duncan's fellows at Kansas and Pittsburgh have conducted investigations at the expense of the corporations concerned in such subjects as the diastase of alfalfa, buttermilk, petroleum, glass, cement, the ductless glands of whales, wood, borax, vegetable ivory, soap, oysters, smoke, gilsonite, glue, composition flooring and natural gas. The young chemist is provided with the crude materials and all necessary information as to the trade processes by the manufacturer and ordinarily if he "makes good" enters into the employ of the company, receiving a bonus on the increased value of the output due to his discoveries. These are recorded in a monograph deposited in the university which after three years has the right to publish them for the benefit of the world at large.

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[1] Of the Philadelphia bar.

The advantages of some such plan of coöperation as this to a state or municipal university is obvious. How much a university can do for the people is shown in the chapter on the work of the University of Wisconsin in popularizing education and aiding the state government. In the first chapter, "The Prizes of Chemistry," which is as it ought to be the most attractive of the book, Professor Duncan presents a list of needed inventions enticing enough to lure anybody into the laboratory in the hope of capturing one of these "prizes" that seem, as he tells it, almost within reach.

Edwin E. Slosson.

New York City.

⚜

American Water Works Association. Proceedings for 1912. Troy, N. Y.: J. M. Diven, Secretary.

The papers and discussions at the annual meeting of the Association make up a large cloth-bound volume. Among the topics treated are pumping plants, reservoir construction, water disinfection by use of hypochlorites and also water softening, sewage disposal and water pollution, water-works organization and the purchase of water-works supplies for New York City, and the general subject of efficiency. The appeal of the contents of the volume is chiefly to water-works officials and engineers, but some of the papers are of more general interest.

⚜

The Call of the New South. Edited by James E. McCulloch. Nashville: Southern Sociological Congress, 1912, pp. 387.

This volume contains the addresses delivered at the First Southern Sociological Congress. There are ten subdivisions, eight of them dealing with substantive questions: child welfare, courts and prisons, public health, negro problems, enemies of the home, education and coöperation, the church and social service, the call and qualifications of social workers. The sundry papers contained in the volume are important in themselves, but their special significance lies in their application to the southern problem and to the disclosure of a growing public interest in social and political obligations in that section.

The Congress, of which Mr. McCulloch the editor of this volume is secretary, has already 1006 members and is preparing for another convention in Atlanta in the month of May.

SWEDISH BOOKS

STOCKHOLM. QUELQUES DONNÉES STATISTIQUES. Pub. par le Service Municipal de Statistique de Stockholm. Édition 1912. Norstedt & Söner.

This little volume of sixty pages contains very brief sections on the government of the city of Stockholm, elections, finances, imports, hygiene, industries, mortality and kindred subjects. The book is beautifully illustrated and has two large maps.

KOMMUNAL FÖRFATTNINGSHANDBOK FÖR STOCKHOLM 1910. Utarbetad af Stockholms statistiska kontor. Stockholm, 1911. Handbook (or Manual) of Municipal Statutes for Stockholm, 1910, pp. 889.

The book, containing "the most important and for daily use most necessary statutes which are still in force for the capital," is divided into eleven sections or parts (each part being fully indexed). Among the subjects treated are the following: "General Statutes (ordinances) Concerning the City Government" (I); "Finance and Economic Activity" (II); "Commerce and Intercommunication" (IV); "Sanitary Conditions" (V); "Poor Relief" (VI), etc.

The book is well edited and is a valuable source for students of city governments.

BERÄTTELSE ANGÅENDE STOCKHOLMS KOMMUNALFÖRVALTNING ÅR 1910 (Relation Concerning the Municipal Administration of Stockholm for the Year 1910). Number II in the series of *Stockholm Stads Statistik* (The Statistics of the City of Stockholm).

In the same series occurs a statistical inquiry into the cost of living in Stockholm for the years 1907–1908, which is also another valuable volume. It is based on a large variety of sources and contains statistics which, in some cases, cover a period of fifty years and more (as for instance statistics on births from 1751 to 1910, on the Gothenburgsystem, 1877 to 1910, etc.), but most of the tables are for recent years.

AMANDUS JOHNSON.
University of Pennsylvania.

BOOKS RECEIVED

BRITISH SOCIAL POLITICS. By Carlton Hayes. Boston: Ginn and Company. 580 pp. $1.75.

THE COTTON MANUFACTURING INDUSTRY OF THE UNITED STATES. By Melvin Thomas Copeland, Ph.D. Harvard Economic Series. Published under the direction of the Department of Economics, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass. 415 pp. $2.00.

ECONOMIC SURVEY OF PITTSBURGH. By J. T. Holdsworth, Ph.D. 1912.

THE FOUNDATIONS OF FREEDOM, THE LAND AND THE PEOPLE. A series of essays on the taxation of land values. Middleton, England: John Bagot, Ltd. 158 pp. Fourpence.

IMMIGRATION AND LABOR: THE ECONOMIC ASPECTS OF EUROPEAN IMMIGRATION TO THE UNITED STATES. By Isaac A. Hourwich, Ph.D. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.50.

MESSAGES OF THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES TRANSMITTING THE REPORTS OF THE COMMISSION ON ECONOMY AND EFFICIENCY. Communicated to the two houses of Congress, January 8, 1913. Washington: Government Printing Office. 1913.

THE GENERAL FEDERATION OF WOMEN'S CLUBS. ELEVENTH BIENNIAL CONVENTION: 1912. Official report compiled and edited by the retiring recording secretary, Mrs. George O. Welch. Published by the Federation. 1912.

HOUSING PROBLEMS IN AMERICA. Proceedings of the Second National Conference on Housing. Philadelphia, December 4–6, 1912. Cambridge, Mass.: The University Press.

THE IMMIGRANT INVASION. By Frank Julian Warne. New York: Dodd, Mead and Company. $2.50.

THE NEW AMERICAN CITIZEN, A READER FOR FOREIGNERS. By Frances S. Mintz. New York: The Macmillan Company. 206 pp. 50 cents.

PRINCIPLES OF PRUSSIAN ADMINISTRATION. By Herman Gerlach James, J.D., Ph.D.—New York: The Macmillan Company. 309 pp. $1.50.

REPORT OF THE LAKE SHORE RECLAMATION COMMISSION. Chicago, 1912.

THE SOCIAL CENTER. By Edward J. Ward. New York: D. Appleton and Company. National Municipal League Series. $1.62 postpaid.

SOCIAL SERVICE IN VIRGINIA. Fourth Annual Report of the State Board of Charities and Corrections to the Governor of Virginia for the year ending September 30, 1912. Richmond: 1913.

STATUTE LAW MAKING IN THE UNITED STATES. By Chester Lloyd Jones. Boston: The Boston Book Company. 327 pp.

HOW NEW YORK CITY ADMINISTERS ITS SCHOOLS. By Ernest C. Moore. Yonkers: N. Y., World Book Company, 1913. 310 pp.

THE CELEBRATION OF THE ONE HUNDRED AND TWENTY-FIFTH ANNIVERSARY OF THE UNIVERSITY OF PITTSBURG. University of Pittsburg Bulletin. Pittsburg, Pa. 1912.

YEAR BOOK AND PROCEEDINGS OF THE FIFTY-SECOND ANNUAL CONVENTION OF THE UNITED STATES BREWERS' ASSOCIATION. Boston, Mass., September 19–20, 1912. New York: The United States Brewers' Association. 1913.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE FOURTH ANNUAL CONVENTION OF THE CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF COMMERCIAL SECRETARIES. Indianapolis, Ind., September 20–21, 1912.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS AT THE THIRTY-NINTH ANNUAL SESSION. Held in Cleveland, Ohio, June 12–19, 1912. Edited by Alexander Johnson. Fort Wayne, Ind.: Fort Wayne Printing Company, 1912.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE SEVENTEENTH ANNUAL CONVENTION OF THE INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF MUNICIPAL ELECTRICIANS. Held at Peoria, Ill., August 27–30, 1912.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE THIRTY-SECOND ANNUAL CONVENTION OF THE AMERICAN WATER WORKS ASSOCIATION. Held at Louisville, Ky., June 3–7, 1912. Published by the Association.

REPORT OF THE INVESTIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES PATENT OFFICE MADE BY THE PRESIDENT'S COMMISSION ON ECONOMY AND EFFICIENCY. December 1912. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1912.

REPORT OF THE PROCEEDINGS OF THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE ON THE PREVENTION OF DESTITUTION. Held at Caxton Hall. Westminster, June 11–14, 1912. London: P. S. King and Son. 1912. 593 pp.

OLD TOWNS AND NEW NEEDS. Also the Town Extension Plan: being the Warburton Lectures for 1912, delivered by Paul Waterhouse, M.A., and Raymond Unwin. F.R.I.B.A. Manchester: The University Press. 36 cents.

Statement of the Ownership, Management, etc., of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, published quarterly at 2419–21 York Road, Baltimore, Md., required by the Act of August 24, 1912.

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CLINTON ROGERS WOODRUFF,
EDITOR.

Sworn to and subscribed before me this fifteenth day of Feburary, 1913.

EMMA D. CHAPPELL,
(Seal) Notary Public.

Commission expires January 18, 1917.

INDEX TO NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW

ALSO TITLE PAGE.

The editor has prepared a detailed index to Volume I of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW which will be sent on application to members of the National Municipal League and subscribers who desire it.

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THE NEW YORK SUBWAY CONTRACTS

BY DELOS F. WILCOX, PH.D.[1]

THE Chicago street railway settlement ordinances, coming just before the day of regulation by commission, marked an era in franchise contract regulation, and in spite of the vigor of the commission movement the stimulus given to elaborate regulation by contract has not yet been checked. In 1910 the Cleveland street railway settlement and the Minneapolis gas ordinances embodied the spirit of local regulation in complex agreements which have since vied with the Chicago ordinances in public interest. Many other cities are wrestling with big franchise problems, and seeking to realize settlements patterned more or less after the "Chicago plan" or the "Cleveland plan."

There seems to be a tendency toward more and more elaborate franchise contracts wherever private ownership or operation is regarded as temporary, and preparatory for municipal ownership or operation. Why this should be so, is clear when we consider the financial interest which the city has as the prospective owner of a great public utility. Immense property rights are involved. Sometimes the investment in a single utility is greater than the entire outstanding debt of a city. When the city is granting a franchise for the construction, reconstruction or development of such an enterprise, and looks upon it as something which the city itself will sooner or later acquire, it is only common business prudence—one of the established ways of the world—to insist that the grant of privileges shall be carefully defined and restricted, and tied up with corresponding obligations for the benefit of the city.

These are stirring days in public utility regulation. Six years ago the first public service commissions were established in two states—New York and Wisconsin. The public utilities commission idea has spread so rapidly that now there are commissions with wide powers in about one-half of the states, and more are coming.

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[1] Dr. Wilcox is chairman of the National Municipal League's committee on franchises, is the author of two volumes on municipal franchises as well as sundry other volumes dealing with municipal questions, and, since 1907, has been chief of the bureau of franchises of the public service commission for the first district, New York. See also his article on "How the Chicago and Cleveland Street Railway Settlements are Working Out," NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. i, p. 630.

It has been thought by some that the advent of commissions embodying the idea of continuous regulation of rates and services under the police power, sounded the death knell of the franchise contract. In certain localities, state regulation has been striding across the horizon brushing aside local ordinances and even home rule charters and accepted franchises as if they were cobwebs in the corners of the sky. People have asked: "Why do we need any elaborate franchise documents, when we have the power to regulate the utilities at any time? Why not forego the attempt to foresee the future and to write down in a contract things which only time can prove? Why not leave all such matters to the public utilities commission, to be decided as the specific need arises?"

If public utilities are viewed as a permanent function of private corporations, so that no one has any interest in the property as such except the present owners and the users of the utility, it may be said with some show of reason that a franchise need be nothing more than a permit to occupy the public streets. If, on the other hand, ultimate municipal ownership is kept in view, either as an established policy or as a lively option, it is evident that commission regulation cannot take the place of a contract between the parties, covering at least the elements going to the determination of the purchase price, the upkeep and extension of the property, the audit of investment accounts, the amortization of the capital value out of earnings, and other kindred matters.

Commission regulation has been looked upon, either as a permanent substitute for public ownership or as a final experiment and preparation for it. Which it is, makes all the difference in the world. If it is the former, elaborate franchise contracts will not be considered necessary and the municipalization of public utilities will become more remote and more difficult from year to year. If it is the latter, regulation will not interfere with franchise contracts, except where they are devised to weaken ultimate public control, and will look with favor upon specific arrangements between cities and utility companies tending to prepare the way for municipal ownership.

As if to prove beyond peradventure that continuous regulation cannot take the place of the contract method, it was left for the public service commission having jurisdiction in New York City, though a state body created for regulatory purposes, to carry the idea of contract regulation furthest of all. The subway contracts and elevated railroad certificates signed by the commission on March 19, 1913, are volumes with an aggregate of no less than 700 printed pages. With its right hand, as representative of the city, the commission marshals 125,000 cunning words and, after many an interminable conference, organizes them into contract form and requires the companies to sign them. At the same time, with its left hand, as an organ of the state, the commission holds taut the reins of regulation by administrative order, and jealously asserts its prerogative to regulate, independent of franchise contracts. The secret of the voluminous contracts in New York, as in Chicago, Minneapolis and Cleveland, is the fact that in each case the idea of future municipal ownership dominated the negotiations.

The New York City rapid transit settlement just consummated after eight years of subway negotiations and more than twenty years of intermittent dickering with the elevated roads, constitutes the most stupendous local franchise bargain that has ever been considered by any city in the world. With a population of five million people within its municipal boundaries, New York now has three systems of local rapid transit railways, representing an aggregate capital investment of about $250,000,000 and an annual capacity of about 800,000,000 passengers. The city also has four great bridges over the East River connecting the borough of Manhattan with the boroughs of Brooklyn and Queens, constructed at a cost of about $100,000,000. These bridges were constructed to carry altogether twelve rapid transit railroad tracks, of which only the two tracks on the New York and Brooklyn Bridge have thus far been used to their capacity, while of the rest only the two on the Williamsburgh Bridge have thus far been used at all.

The rapid transit plans just agreed upon involve the expenditure of about $330,000,000 of new capital in transit lines, and the putting of the bridges across the East River into full use. Thus it appears that these plans call for an immediate increase of about 130 per cent in the investment in rapid transit railroads proper, and an increase of more than 200 per cent in the utilization for rapid transit purposes of the $100,000,000 investment in the bridges. The so-called "dual plan," as embodied in the new contracts and franchises, provides for an increase of 150 per cent in the total passenger capacity of the rapid transit lines, so that, at the end of five years, with all the proposed new lines constructed, connections made and additional facilities provided, New York City's rapid transit capacity will be at least 2,000,000,000 passengers per annum. How stupendous the plan is and how important the influence it must necessarily have upon the financial, social and industrial conditions in New York may be seen from the fact that in the fiscal year ending June 30, 1912, the total number of fare passengers carried in New York City on all the local transit lines, including the surface street cars, was less than 1,700,000,000. In other words, it is now proposed to enlarge the rapid transit system at one stroke so that it will accommodate within four or five years more than the total number of passengers now conveyed on the rapid transit lines plus the surface street railways.

The engineering problems connected with this vast enterprise have for the most part been overcome in the construction of the old subway and the bridges. It is possible that still greater difficulties may be met in burrowing under the narrow roadways of Nassau and William streets, among the roots of the sky-scrapers of the financial district, but the engineers approach the problem with confidence, believing that in the main the difficulties still to be encountered are similar to those which have already been overcome.

It is the political and financial aspects of the problem that have caused most of the trouble. When we reflect upon the variety of the financial interests involved, upon the complexity of the legal requirements and the multiplicity of authorities whose coöperation is required, it is a marvel that any subways at all have been constructed and put into operation in New York. It is inevitable that plans involving so much and the interests of so great a population in matters so vital to every day comfort, convenience and business success, should have been the subject of fierce controversy. Ever since the present subway was opened in 1904, the public authorities of New York have been planning, negotiating, re-planning and wrestling with the problem of subway expansion, and ever since 1891 the problem of additional franchises for the improvement and extension of the elevated railroads has been acute. Nothing had been accomplished with the Manhattan Railway since J. P. Morgan headed a committee to negotiate new franchises with the rapid transit board and old Jay Gould tottered down to tell the board that the elevated railroads were one of the chief health agencies of the city, warranted to cure any disease but grip, all by reason of the atmospheric circulation induced by the rush of the trains through the upper regions of the streets. Now that a comprehensive plan of subway and elevated railroad expansion has at last been agreed upon, and the contracts signed, sealed and delivered, even the reluctant consent of the thrifty and reactionary heir of "Doctor" Gould having been secured, the country should find it worth while to pause long enough to cast an inquiring glance in the direction of New York City's achievment, and look to see how far the metropolis is ahead of or behind its sister cities in the franchise procession.

Briefly, the dual plan, as the city's newly adopted rapid transit policy is called, involves the following main points:

1. The elevated railroads in old New York (Manhattan and The Bronx) are to be extended and third-tracked by the Interborough Rapid Transit Company, the lessee of the Manhattan Railway Company, under eighty-five year franchises. The existing franchises are perpetual. The new ones for the third-tracking and extensions are to be indeterminate after ten years within the eighty-five year limit, and provision is to be made for the amortization, within that time, of the new capital invested. The Manhattan

elevated railway, as extended and improved, is to be operated as a separate 5-cent fare system, serving Manhattan and The Bronx, with the addition of trackage rights over certain rapid transit lines to be constructed by the city, serving a portion of the borough of Queens tributary to the Queensboro Bridge, which enters Manhattan at 59th Street on a line with the southern boundary of Central Park.

2. The present municipal subway, extending north and south through the borough of Manhattan with two branches running into The Bronx, north of the Harlem River, and one short extension to the business heart of Brooklyn, now operated by the Interborough Rapid Transit Company under leases from the city, is to be extended by what is practically a doubling of its lines in Manhattan and The Bronx, by the addition of another tunnel under the East River to Brooklyn, by the construction of lines to serve an important V-shaped section of Brooklyn not now served by any rapid transit lines and by the utilization of the Steinway Tunnel under 42nd Street and the East River with two extensions into the northwest portion of the borough of Queens.

The present subway was constructed with city money and equipped by the operating company. The extensions of the present subway are to be constructed half with city money and half with money furnished by the operating company, and are to be equipped by the company. The present subway is held under two leases. One, covering the portion north of the City Hall, originally extended for a period of fifty years from 1904, with the right of renewal for twenty-five years more upon a readjustment of the rental. The other, covering the line from City Hall to Atlantic Avenue, Brooklyn, extended for a period of thirty-five years from 1908 with a similar right of renewal. During the renewal terms, the rentals were to be readjusted, and at the final expiration of the leases in 1979 and 1968, the city was to get possession of the subway free of cost and to purchase the equipment at its then fair value. In all probability, the rental during the renewal periods would have been more than sufficient to pay for this equipment.

Under the new subway contract with the Interborough Rapid Transit Company, the existing leases have been levelled by the extension of their original terms to December 31, 1965, and by the abrogation of the company's right to the renewals. The new lines connected with the present subway are to be leased to the Interborough Company, and not only the new subways themselves, but the new equipment will come into the possession of the city without cost at the expiration of the new contract, some fifty-three years hence. In the meantime, however, although the city's investment of about $60,000,000 in the present subway will continue to be taken care of as a first charge on the earnings of the extended system, the company will be entitled to take out of earnings the sum of $6,335,000 annually, representing its average annual net profits for the two-year period ending June 30, 1911, and six per cent on all new capital furnished by it, before either interest, sinking fund or profit is paid upon the city's share of the new investment. The $6,335,000 preferential to the company represents something over thirteen per cent on the company's present investment. When coupled with the 6 per cent upon new money immediately to be furnished by the company, this preferential payment is figured out as 8.76 per cent upon the entire amount of capital to be invested in the enlarged system prior to the beginning of operation in 1917. Following this preferential the city is also to receive 8.76 per cent upon the new money furnished by it. After the enlarged system has gone into operation, however, the company will be required to contribute one-half of the cost of additions and betterments needed from time to time, and the entire cost of the additional equipment that may be made necessary by the growth of traffic. Upon this additional money the company will receive 6 per cent annually as a preferential wedged in between its original preferential and the city's 8.76 per cent. If anything is left after the payment of these huge preferentials and the establishment of a contingent reserve, the balance will be treated as net profits and will be divided equally between the city and the company.

The present subway, with the extensions included in the new lease to the Interborough Rapid Transit Company, is to be operated for a single five-cent fare, but without transfers (except at one point) to the elevated railroads of the Manhattan Railway system, which is to be operated by the same company, and also without transfers to the other subways and elevated railroads, not operated by this company.

3. The existing elevated railroad system of Brooklyn is to be in large measure reconstructed, third-tracked and extended. As extended it will have three lines running into Queens, serving certain limited portions of that borough not reached by the proposed extensions of the Steinway tunnel. The elevated railroads of Brooklyn now dump their passengers at the Manhattan terminals of the New York and Brooklyn bridge and the Williamsburgh bridge, but have no facilities for distributing them through the main business district of the city. It is proposed, therefore, to construct a new system of subways to provide adequate terminal facilities in lower Manhattan for the elevated railroads of Brooklyn, and to serve portions of the borough of Brooklyn not now adequately provided with rapid transit lines and not included in the V-shaped section which is to be developed as a part of the Interborough Rapid Transit Company's area. Of the cost of these new subways the city will furnish about six-sevenths and the company about one-seventh, while the company will furnish the entire cost of equipment. This company is also to have trackage rights over the rapid transit lines to be constructed by the city

as extensions of the Steinway tunnel in the northwestern part of the borough of Queens. It is to be noted that while the Interborough Company will operate two separate and independent systems without exchange of transfers (except as noted), the New York Consolidated Railroad Company (operating subsidiary of the Brooklyn Rapid Transit Company) will operate the elevated railroads of Brooklyn and the subways allotted to it as a single 5 cent fare system. But the free transfers now being given at many points between the elevated railroads of Brooklyn and the surface street car lines will be discontinued, unless future arrangements are made with the city's approval, for their continuance. The general terms of the contracts under which the elevated roads of Brooklyn are to be improved and extended and a system of municipal subways is to be operated in connection with them, are similar in most respects to the terms upon which the city deals with the Interborough Rapid Transit Company. But the company's fixed preferential and the city's percentage preferential are both much smaller under the Brooklyn contract than they are under the Interborough contract, thus leaving a better hope for divisible profits. The plans for the extension and third-tracking of the elevated roads are to be carried out by the company under eighty-five year franchises terminable after ten years, and the subways are to be leased for a period ending December 31, 1965, when the city will come into possession of the subway property, including both construction and equipment, without purchase. The existing elevated railroads, however, will be retained by the company under the perpetual franchises which it now holds.

The dual plan, therefore, is "dual" only with respect to the number of operating companies. With respect to operating systems it is a triple scheme. The Manhattan Railway now has a capacity of about 300,000,000 passengers. As enlarged, its capacity will be about 450,000,000. The present subway also has a capacity of about 300,000,000. As enlarged it will have a capacity to carry between 750,000,000 and 800,000,000. The elevated system of Brooklyn, as now constructed, with its inadequate terminal facilities, has a capacity of scarcely 200,000,000; while the new combined system of elevated railroads and subways to be operated by the Brooklyn company will probably have a capacity of from 800,000,000 to 900,000,000 per annum. The three systems will represent roughly an investment of $120,000,000, $250,000,000 and $210,000,000 respectively, excluding the cost of the East River bridges, three of which will be used exclusively by the Brooklyn company, and one jointly by the two companies. In the subway contracts, provision is made for the extension of either subway system from time to time in the future, the city to construct the extensions and the respective companies to equip and operate them, subject to certain terms and conditions which are calculated to protect the financial interests of the companies while at the same time leaving the city free to extend its rapid transit lines at any time if it has the necessary funds. One of the chief difficulties under the old subway leases has been that the city has had no power to compel the company to build or equip a foot of extensions, or even to operate an extension if built and equipped by the city.

The New York subway contracts and elevated railroad franchises are so long and so complex that many interesting details must be omitted from this analysis. It will be worth while, however, to attempt a general appraisal of these contracts and franchises in comparison with the Chicago and Cleveland settlements and in the light of fundamental principles of franchise regulation.

The big features of the Chicago settlement were the following:

1. Surrender of all outstanding franchises and inclusion of substantially the entire surface street railway system, with future extensions, under the terms of a single contract plan.
2. Definite fixing of purchase price, with increase for additional investment, and contract right of city to take over the street railways at any time upon payment of the price thus fixed.
3. First class construction and equipment under control of impartial board of supervising engineers.
4. One-city-one-fare, the same at all hours, 5 cents for adults, 3 cents for children from seven to twelve years old, with universal transfers except in the downtown business district.
5. A fixed return of 5 per cent upon capital value, plus a share in net profits to the operating companies to supply the motive for economy and efficiency.
6. Fifty-five per cent of surplus net profits to go to the city and be accumulated as a street railway purchase fund.
7. The right of the city to require a fixed mileage of extensions each year, and such additional extensions as will not reduce the companies' surplus profits to an unreasonably small amount.
8. Right of city to regulate service subject to the approval of the board of supervising engineers.

Certain weak points in the Chicago settlement have developed. They are mainly these:

1. Inclusion of franchise values and superseded property to the extent of many millions of dollars without any provision for the amortization of this dead capital.
2. No provision for the investment of the city's profits in the securities of the companies, thus leaving the purchase fund to accumulate in the banks at the rate of 2¼ per cent, while new capital is being poured into the system drawing 5 per cent interest on par, with a 5 per cent allowance for brokerage and a 10 per cent allowance for contractor's profit on construction included in par.

3. No provision for purchase by the city except upon payment of the full purchase price of one or both of the systems in cash in a lump sum, thus making purchase difficult and requiring the unnecessary disturbance of the bonded debt.

4. Inadequate provision for continuous control of service by the board of supervising engineers, the initiation of service regulations being left to the city council.

5. No certain provision as to what will happen to the property at the expiration of the franchise in 1927, if the city does not choose to buy it before or at that time.

Though based upon the expectation of municipal ownership, the Chicago settlement has, through its weaknesses, made municipalization more remote and difficult. After six years the city has accumulated a purchase fund of about $11,000,000 and the purchase price has increased about $80,000,000. Dead capital alone has probably increased more than the entire accumulations of the purchase fund, though with the completion of the rehabilitation period the increase of dead capital should now cease.

The Cleveland settlement came three years later than the Chicago settlement, and while the two plans have many points in common, they are radically different in certain respects. In Cleveland, as in Chicago, all outstanding franchises were surrendered and the entire street railway system brought under the provisions of a single ordinance. Also, Cleveland fixed the purchase price at which the city can take over the property at any time. But instead of a fixed fare, division of profits and a purchase fund, Cleveland provided for service at cost by means of a sliding schedule of fares and a fixed rate of return on a fixed investment. Extensions are under the control of the city, subject to the company's ability to finance them within the limits of the fare-schedule, the maximum rate allowed being 4 cents cash fare, seven tickets for 25 cents, and 1 cent for a transfer. But if the twenty-five year franchise granted is ever allowed to come within fifteen years of expiration, then the city's right to propose extensions will cease and the company will have the right to charge the maximum rate allowed by the schedule and use its surplus profits for amortization purposes. If subsequently the city purchases, it will get the benefit of the amortization. The city retains a check upon new capital expenditures and repairs and renewals, and has full control of service to the extent of the company's ability to earn its fixed return under the maximum fares allowed. Matters of dispute, if arbitrable under the law, are to be determined by arbitration.

The weak points of the Cleveland franchise are these:

1. It capitalizes several million dollars of franchise values and makes no provision for their amortization or the amortization of any part of

the capital value except when the franchise comes within fifteen years of its expiration.

2. By absolutely fixing the company's profit, it kills the motive for economy and efficiency supposed to be the main excuse for the continuance of the private operation of public utilities. It is thus compelled to rely upon arbitrary checks and continuous control by the city street railroad commissioner to make the dead motive act as if it were alive.

In practical operation what may be considered an over-emphasis of the low-fare idea in Cleveland has a tendency to limit extensions and to keep the standard of service down, while at the same time leaving no surplus with which to amortize the investment out of earnings for the city's benefit. But the Cleveland plan at least has the merit of not being heartily approved by the corporations in every municipality where they are trying to get the city to pull their chestnuts out of the fire by the capitalization of ancient losses and the guaranty of future profits on a swollen investment. The Cleveland plan has faults, but from the standpoint of future municipalization, these faults are far less serious than those of the Chicago plan, even though Cleveland is not accumulating a purchase fund.

Three years are an era in these swiftly-moving days. In 1907, Chicago settled. In 1910, Cleveland settled. In 1913, New York settled. But New York's settlement has to do with subways and elevated roads, not with surface street car lines. Yet it may be truly said that rapid transit in New York has come to be the major factor in local transportation.

In the new subway contracts and elevated railroad franchises New York has gone both forward and backward. It has not only made provision for an indeterminate franchise within a maximum time limit, but has made provision for the amortization of the entire original investment within that maximum period. It has reserved the right to terminate the contracts and recapture the subway lines in seven separate divisions. It has reserved to itself unlimited authority to compel the companies to operate extensions, the city assuming the deficits. The city has definitely assumed the risk of the rapid transit enterprises and has reduced the entire new investment in subway and elevated lines to a bond basis, with the bonus for motive offered in the form of a division of net profits with the operating companies. Capital as such will receive a definite and fixed return. Additional profits, if there be any, will not go to capital at all, but to the operating agencies alone. The city itself constructs the subways and retains the supervision of their equipment and of the reconstruction, extension and equipment of the elevated roads. The city has the right to object to particular items of operating expenses and maintainance, and to invoke arbitration to determine their reasonableness and propriety. In these respects—(1) amortization of the entire investment within a fixed period, (2) recapture of the subways in detail, (3) authority to require the operation of extensions, (4) assumption by the city of the risk of the investment, (5) actual construction and close supervision of equipment by the city, and (6) the city's right to challenge operating expenditures—New York may properly be said to have gone forward.

There is, however, a different side to the story. Let the reader judge for himself whether New York has not made considerable net progress backwards. The new contracts and franchises do *not* resettle the outstanding rights of the companies, but leave perpetual franchises undisturbed except to strengthen them, and leave long-term leases of city lines untouched except to "level" them by lopping off fag ends of little value and extending original terms of great value to the company, and by providing in a doubtful manner for an exchange of certain old and new lines in the event of recapture of the new lines by the city. The city goes into partnership with the companies, furnishes vast amounts of capital toward the construction of the new lines, sets this contribution to work to help earn the present profits of the companies and their additional interest and sinking fund charges on account of new investment, and accepts for itself what is equivalent to the second mortgage with no right to foreclose for non-payment of interest. Moreover, the city buys these second mortgage income bonds at par, while it allows the companies to take the gilt-edged first mortgage bonds at 97 with a provision for their retirement in the case of one company at 107½ and in the case of the other at 110. New York does not adhere to the one-city-one-fare principle, even as to rapid transit lines, but perpetuates three operating systems, or, if we count the Hudson tunnels, four, without requiring an exchange of transfers. The city drains its credit almost to the last dollar for rapid transit purposes alone, leaving nothing with which to meet the capital expenditures for other civic improvements bound to follow in the wake of subway expansion, and at the same time permits the companies for fifty years to take our of rapid transit earnings as a preferential the amount of their present profits, swollen by congestion and neglect. New York even provides for the expenditure of many millions of dollars in the reconstruction and improvement of the companies' old lines, these millions to be amortized as a preferential, though the reconstructed property, maintained at the top-notch, will remain the property of the companies for all time, even though it has been paid for. While the city retains authority to compel the companies to operate any number of extensions, it has to build the extensions itself, and unless they are profitable on their own account, it will have to make good the deficits out of its own pocket. The city has the right to recapture the new lines, but all of them are to be hooked up in operation with old lines that cannot be recaptured. So, the termination of a contract in whole or in part will involve the dismemberment of an operating system, the upsetting of established habits of travel and the substitution of two fares for one. The New York contracts ignore the relation of surface lines to rapid transit lines and make no provision for transfers between them, except at a single point of little importance. Existing transfers to surface lines are to be cut off. With one of the companies, the hope of divisible profits is so remote that the incentive for economy and efficiency bids fair to be entirely absent, leaving the company with its guaranteed profits and interest, and its hand in the city's pocket to spend freely the margin that ought to go to the payment of interest and sinking fund charges on the city's investment. By the spirit of its partnership with the companies, the city pledges itself not to attack, but rather to acknowledge and protect as far as possible or necessary the perpetual franchises that might otherwise be forfeited by vigilant public officials. The new elevated railroad franchises run for a maximum period of eighty-five years although their cost is to be fully amortized in less than fifty years out of preferentials allowed for the purpose.

New York had the benefit of its own experience and the experience of Chicago, Cleveland and other cities to guide it. In this enterprise it did not start at the bottom of the well. If we were to apply to it the problem of the frog, the conundrum would have to be put something like this: "A frog finds himself half-way up the side of a forty-foot well. He starts to climb out. Every day he climbs two feet and every night he slips back four. How many days and nights will pass before he gets out?" To one looking at the fundamentally progressive principles theoretically embodied in the subway settlement and then considering the limitations put upon them in the actual working out of the bargain with the rapid transit companies, it seems likely that captious critics in the outside world may regard New York as headed right, but going backward.

The controversy over the contracts caused a sharp division among good men who might have been expected to stick together upon fundamental questions of civic policy. But the preponderating influences that put the contracts through, though stoutly proclaiming that the bargain meant municipal ownership, were cold toward the possibility of municipal operation. Official opinion in New York has very little sympathy with municipal operation of public utilities, and the city was so faint-hearted on this subject that its enjoyment of full power to operate the subways, without further legislation of any kind, scarcely furnished its negotiators with a talking point. Indeed, the enthusiasm for full municipal *ownership* in the technical sense seems to have been stimulated by the thought that if title to the subways and their equipment vested in the city, the companies would not have to pay taxes on the property as a charge in advance of profits. The city was at a disadvantage because the existing elevated roads were held under perpetual franchises and because the present subway had been improvidently alienated for a long period. It is orthodox among the politicians of the dominant parties in New York, among the boss-selected judges and among the public officials generally, to bow the knee to vested interests. While the city's representatives might express a mild regret that their predecessors in some other era had seen fit to hand out perpetual franchise grants and enormously profitable leases, the claim or possession of these advantages by the companies already in the field was something to be accepted as an established fact. To attack an endless franchise merely because it was corruptly acquired or acquired by the exercise of squatter sovereignty, or merely because the company claiming the franchise has failed to perform its obligations in law and equity, or to cut down by competition the exorbitant profits of an overworked monopoly, is not looked upon with favor. Official New York has great respect for the princes of this world who have money and financial power, and regards it as unethical and impolitic to inquire too closely into sources or to question titles. And so, although the law specifically authorizes the public authorities to require the surrender of old outstanding franchises as a condition of the grant of additional rapid transit rights, no official body in New York has ever seriously contemplated such action.

Coupled with this official aversion to municipal operation and this precept of official ethics that whatever a public service corporation has, or stoutly claims, it is entitled to keep, is a timidity such as characterizes a man who is carrying all the debt he can and a good deal more than he wants to. New York City now owes nearly $1,000,000,000 net, including its contribution to the new subways. Its debt has been piled up in part by the issuance of fifty-year bonds for ten-year improvements and even for the purpose of funding current budget deficits. It has made a rule not to pay for anything now that can be saddled onto an unborn future. It rejects profits as if they were plebeian and courts extravagancies as the emblems of municipal dignity. It is always impecunious, and the unsatisfied judgments of civilization pile up against it year by year. So, now, in the city's great crisis, when it had one last opportunity to assume a dominant rôle in the development of its own transit facilities, the official mind was deterred from aggressiveness by its tenderness for vested privileges and was restrained from independent constructive thought by reflection upon the notes in the bank.

These three things made the city's position weak: (1) unreadiness to compel the surrender of existing perpetual franchises and long-term leases by whatever means might prove necessary, (2) unreadiness to undertake municipal operation even as a last resort, and (3) present inability to finance its big projects along established lines without help from private capital.

The New York subway contracts have the lure of a great enterprise. Though we may not approve of fifty-story buildings, yet it gives us a thrill of joy to look up at the Metropolitan tower, or the cathedral spires of the Woolworth building just across the corner from New York's little old city hall. There may be more art in the weather-stained structure of a century ago, but the mighty office building with its top lost in the mist one morning and standing out in clear relief against the shining sky the next fills our untutored souls with a kind of savage joy. So this subway scheme, second only to the Panama Canal as a tremendous engineering enterprise, attracts us with its very bigness. The "boosters" have the advantage over the "knockers," for the subway contracts, once signed, spell physical accomplishment as the immediate next step. New York's need of additional transit facilities has been scandalous for many years, with only partial and temporary relief from time to time. The Brooklyn Bridge crush and the subway jam are barbaric institutions. Then, the profit-hunger of the real estate dealers, who hover like a Parthian army on the outskirts of the city, creates an atmosphere in which academic discussions about franchise principles meet with scant toleration. The landmen have waited long for the expected brood of rapid transit birds to be hatched, often fearing that the eggs were rotten after all, and in the meantime have felt the frequent stings of a long tax-payers' winter.

These considerations explain why in New York the subway debate, which from a cool academic standpoint seems to run strongly against the contracts, was decided the other way by the preponderant influences that bore in upon officialdom. The people had no voice except the voice of clamor, pro or con, for in New York franchises are not subject to the referendum.

It would fill this magazine to present in detail the provisions of the contracts and the arguments for and against them. No more subtle and complex partnership was ever devised. Law, engineering, accounting,and public policy are woven together in infinite detail. There are dozens of subjects upon which whole articles might profitably be written. The provisions in regard to recapture of lines, extensions, amortization, replacements, reconstruction, equipment, determination of cost, interest during construction, engineering and legal expenses, joint trackage rights, treatment of existing franchises, preferentials, depreciation, default, indemnity bond and deposits, operating routes, control of operating expenses, division of profits, taxes, debt discount, construction and operating accounts, "exchange of legs,"—are all interesting, controversial and important. It may be worth while, however, in bringing this article to a close to enumerate the chief points in the argument for and against the contracts.

In favor of the contracts, it was urged:

1. That the dual plan as a route scheme meant the first effective step in remaking New York from a highly congested, unsymmetrical, long city into a less congested, more evenly developed, round city.

2. That the dual plan meant a great extension of the five-cent fare zones, and the provision of direct and convenient access to the business district for vast areas and populations now suffering from the inconvenience of indirect routes and double fares.

3. That the dual plan utilized to the full not only the extensive and in part unwise investments in subways and bridges already made by the city, but also the existing facilities of the rapid transit companies already in the field, thus securing a maximum of service for a minimum of new investment.

4. That the dual plan would at last put the city in control of future rapid transit development by the provision authorizing it to build and compel the companies to operate extensions whenever and wherever needed.

5. That the dual plan would enlist the coöperation of private capital to the extent of $165,000,000 of new money, without which the city could not possibly carry through the immense and beneficent enlargement of rapid transit facilities immediately necessary for the public welfare, except after long, painful and disastrous delays.

6. That the dual plan, while recognizing the right of the companies to maintain their present profits, definitely limited the preferential return on new capital to an amount substantially equivalent to interest and amortization charges.

7. That by the new contract with the Interborough Rapid Transit Company the leases of the existing subway would be levelled and made coterminous with the lease of the new lines, thus bringing the entire subway situation to a head at one time.

8. That by the right of recapture at any time after ten years of operation, this right being applicable to the entire new subway system operated by either company, or to any one or more of several specified divisions of each system, the city would remain in continuous control of the situation with the power to shift lines from one company to the other, to throw both of the companies out and get a new operator, or to institute municipal operation.

9. That under the dual plan not only would the city *own* the subways and their equipment from the beginning even though it was to contribute only a portion of the cost, but the entire investment, private and public, would be amortized within the period of the contracts and possession of the property fully paid for and unencumbered by debt, would then revert to the city.

10. That the elevated railroad improvements included in the dual plan would give the quickest possible relief to existing congestion of traffic.

11. That the consummation of this vast scheme of rapid transit development would greatly stimulate the growth of the city, increase its values

and add to its borrowing capacity and taxing resources, thus insuring the city's ability to recapture the subways whenever it might choose to do so and making the burden of any possible deficits arising under the contracts too insignificant to be considered.

On the other hand, those opposed to the contracts, while admitting the actual soundness of some of the arguments just enumerated, and the theoretical soundness of most of them, contended that several of the advantages claimed could not actually be realized under the terms of the contracts as worked out in detail, that others were in no sense peculiar to the dual plan, and that the positively objectionable features of the contracts more than offset any possible advantages obtainable only through this plan.

Specifically, they urged:

1. That the preferentials guaranteed to the companies were exorbitant, and that those of the Interborough in particular were the result of neglected depreciation and shameless congestion of traffic, the outgrowth of the company's reactionary policy in the past.

2. That the Interborough's plans for financing its share in the scheme involved the payment of an outrageous tribute to J. P. Morgan and Company, the money kings, who were to get $170,000,000 of Interborough new and refunding bonds at 93½, although these bonds would easily be worth par in the open market, and in fact were to be redeemed from time to time for amortization purposes at 110, while the Brooklyn company's financial scheme, after being worked out through the intricate convolutions of interwoven companies, showed an even worse result.

3. That the allowance of 1 per cent per annum for a sinking fund covering a period of forty-nine years would enable the Interborough to accumulate a surplus of from $30,000,000 to $60,000,000 within the life of the contract, out of which it would take care of the excessive discounts not directly chargeable to capital account under the contract, while the Brooklyn company would be enabled to charge its discounts to interest during construction, and thus keep for itself the surplus in its sinking fund.

4. That the levelling of the leases of the present subway, instead of being an advantage to the city, involved the gift of $30,000,000 or $40,000,000 more to the Interborough Company during the life of its new contract.

5. That the Interborough contract, by reason of the excessive preferentials both to the company and to the city, could never promise a division of profits, and hence would destroy the company's motive for economy and efficiency, leaving it free, without loss to itself, to wallow in extravagance and exploit politics on the city's margin.

6. That by reason of the deficits the city would surely have to pay, its rapid transit bonds would remain subject to the debt limit and its tax

resources would be drained to the utmost, thus nullifying for practical purposes the recaption scheme depended on to keep the city in constant control of the situation.

7. That in amazing disregard of the first principles of equity, if not of law, the reconstruction and improvement of existing elevated railroads was to be charged entirely to capital account, fully amortized out of earnings by an annual preferential in advance of the city's interest on its investment, and then left at the expiration of the contracts—all paid for and maintained at the topnotch of efficiency—in the perpetual possession of the companies.

8. That the city's subways would be hooked up by a sort of Morganatic marriage with the princely family of Perpetual Franchises, to be exploited for their benefit, and in the end cut off unfitted for independence by the habits of half a century.

9. That the franchises for the elevated railroad extensions and improvements, running for eighty-five years, represented a mere wanton and inexcusable throwing away of public rights, provision being made by which the companies would amortize out of their preferentials the entire investment in these improvements and extensions within the period of the subway contracts, namely, forty-nine years.

10. That full municipal ownership (and municipal operation if the companies were unreasonable) of a comprehensive, independent system of new subways, financed so far as necessary by rapid transit certificates secured directly on the property and income of the subways, would be infinitely preferable to an unequal partnership with discredited corporations.

There is nothing new under the sun. In 1875, nearly forty years ago, New York debated whether the elevated roads should be constructed with public or with private capital. Then as now there was a sharp divergence of opinion among the city's official representatives. The prevailing view was that "private enterprise should most assuredly be given the preference, in all works of this character, and an opportunity should be given to private capitalists to secure the advantages of investing in an undertaking that is in such popular demand as to be morally certain of proving highly profitable and remunerative." Should we say that the enlightened aldermen of those days, whose words we quote, were some forty years ahead of their times? or that the public officials of 1913, who have been so solicitous for the protection of private profits and who proclaim so confidently the triumph of justice and fair-dealing in the new subway settlement, are still thinking in the grooves of 1875?

SCHOOL PROGRESS IN NEW YORK CITY

BY JOHN MARTIN[1]

New York City

THE New York school system baffles comprehension by its magnitude. The significant statistics of the system defy realization; like stellar distances they are beyond mental grasp. There are 750,000 youngsters enrolled. This is an army which marching four abreast would stretch all the way from New York to Philadelphia. There was an increase of 23,000 on the rolls of day schools last year. The yearly increase involves as great an expenditure for new buildings and equipment as the total outlay in a city like Syracuse since its foundation for housing its school system. There are over 18,000 on the teaching and supervising force, not including janitors nor those on the repairing and building force. This number with their families would make a town the size of Savannah. The increase in the teachers' salaries for the year 1912 was $3,500,000, the increase alone surpassing the total outlay for teachers in Colorado, Kentucky, Georgia, Maine, Virginia or Vermont. The appropriation last year for current expenses and new buildings exceeded $40,000,000, a sum greater than the combined revenues of the states of Oregon, Rhode Island, South Carolina, South Dakota, Tennessee, Texas, Utah, Vermont, Massachusetts, Virginia and Washington, and as great as the revenue of the Empire State itself. Who can encompass such prodigious facts or fully grasp their significance?

With responsibilities so huge it would be excusable if the New York board of education and board of superintendents were content to keep moving in the old ruts without trying new experiments or making fresh advances; but, on the contrary, they are so open to fresh ideas that it is doubtful whether any school system the world over shows more courage and ingenuity in devising new ways to help the child and its parents. A brief review will prove this assertion.

A special effort has been made recently to aid slow and dull pupils so as to lessen the number who fail to win promotion. Formerly the child who fell behind in one or two major subjects was forced to repeat all the work of a grade, with the result that the number of over-age children in the grades, of children who were really too old for the class they occupied, ran into the tens of thousands; while the bright children, who could easily reach the goal of graduation in a shortened time, were kept back with the average and so wasted one or more school years. Only by the use of special classes and group work, and by elastic organization can all the pupils, the backward, the ordinary and the clever alike, be given the chance to progress at the rate their faculties will allow. Father Knickerbocker has 1500 children in his classes who, recently arrived from across the Atlantic, cannot yet speak English. He has 25,000—as many as are in all the classes of all kinds of the schools of Nashville—in special classes for overage pupils, to help them to make more rapid progress and to catch up with their mates.

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[1] Mr. Martin is a member of the board of education of New York City and some years ago was associated with the school system of London, so that he writes out of a fullness of knowledge and wide experience, which gives added force to his words. His reference to the social activities of the New York schools is supplemented by Mr. John Collier's article based on Edward J. Ward's *The Social Center*, see page 455.

At the same time that this notable advance was achieved in the mental work, the work in the more popular subjects, like music, dancing, drawing and gymnastics moved forward.

Only a decade ago the high school principal who introduced dancing for his pupils was reprimanded and, only by changing the name to "aesthetic steps," was he able to retain the startling innovation. Today no girl need leave school without a knowledge of a dozen graceful folk dances, which, borrowed from all the countries of Europe, have won such popularity as to modify the civilization of congested sections. May day festivals were held in the parks, when 7000 white-clad maidens danced around the Maypole and, more remarkable, displayed with wonderful rhythm and beauty, the steps and combinations that the peasants use to express their gladness in Russia, Finland, Roumania and France.

The lads, more lusty and less rhythmical, show their prowess in athletic competitions, for which most of the schools enter. The intensive form of athletics, with its unavoidable neglect of the many for the few and the glorification of the athlete, is discouraged in favor of the extensive form, which tempts every boy to join in, which fosters group loyalty, avoids the adulation of star performers and gives everybody a chance. Badges are given to every youngster who reaches a normal standard—can chin himself so many times on the horizontal bar, and the like. Last year 8299 won this distinction, an increase of one-third over the previous year. One employer of many young men has written:

> I have come to recognize the badge given by the board of education for athletic work and particularly for good posture to be of real significance. It is rare indeed that I do not find every boy who has won a badge superior to those who have not won the badge. I wish every boy would go through your course of sprouts' and come to us alert and strong and standing up straight—the way these fellows do.

Class athletics, a scheme by which four-fifths of the boys in a class must compete in the making of the class average record, and in which the winning class is the one that gets the most points, is fast increasing. When

8000 boys in the grammar grades compete in class running, benefits are not being confined to a few star performers. One lad, who helped to make his class record in jumping among the best, was himself one-legged; but he out-jumped many of his two-legged mates.

A goodly number of schools have their own school athletic meets and interclass competitions in basketball, baseball, running, and so forth, while more pretentious meets, in which the schools of large districts engage, have been common. In the high schools, to the delight of the lovers of the army, marksmanship has been practised with such effect that for the third time the boys of New York city hold the championship of the United States against the competition of scores of preparatory and military schools.

For the better physical development of the girls, who, despite the suffragettes, cannot imitate their brothers in the heavier outdoor sports, no less than 269 clubs have been organized by 941 of the teachers for taking long walks together. Periodically these bands wander forth, in charge of an adult selected by the principal, many of them lasses who formerly had never dared to roam beyond their own block, in order to explore the parks, see the distant sights, or breathe the fresh air of the woods and fields. Who can measure the benefit to body and mind of such strolls, especially for those girls who have spent their narrow lives in a squalid tenement and to whom a few trees and a patch of grass are a wonder and a mystery?

Besides the city armories, which are by courtesy utilized in the winter months for the athletic meets, the board operates itself, for summer use, four superb athletic fields, finer in equipment than the aristocratic youths of Eton and Harrow enjoy. And so that spirit of fair play, strenuous endeavor and ready coöperation, which led the Duke of Wellington to declare that the battle of Waterloo was won on the playing fields of Eton is likewise being fostered on the athletic fields of New York, and fostered not in a select aristocratic class but among tens of thousands who dwell in lowly tenements and must win a livelihood by arduous toil.

Allied to physical training is the teaching of hygiene, in which, also, a transformation is taking place. The practice of healthy habits instead of the inculcation of health precepts is aimed at. It is more important for a child to learn to come to school with clean body, teeth brushed, fingernails white and get into the way of doing some simple setting-up exercises morning and night than it is to learn by rote the horrors of alcoholism or the fell dangers of tobacco. The kind of hygiene that is being taught more and more widely is illustrated by the report of a boy sanitary commissioner of one public school who writes:

> My first duty is to see that every boy comes to school clean. A sanitary chart with the names of the boys written on it is kept in every class from the sixth year up. A monitor, appointed by me, marks this chart

every morning, according to the boy's cleanliness. At the end of every month a list of the dirty boys is given to me by the different monitors. The offenders are summoned to court, where they are tried, and, if found guilty, are sentenced by the judges.

Athletic exercises and healthy habits will sharpen hunger. "Let good digestion wait on appetite." With 150 special teachers of home economics—cooking, housekeeping, laundry work and nursing—the girls of the upper grades are being prepared for their destined and appropriate vocation of hometaking better than ever before since the colonial days when mother taught daughter a multitude of household arts. In well-equipped kitchens under skilful guidance bevies of white-capped girls may be seen any school day, daintily weighing and mixing, tasting and cooking, the simple dishes which every woman should be able to prepare, practising the tactics by which that great enemy of Americans, dyspepsia, may be routed.

Meanwhile their brothers are handling hammer, chisel and saw in handy workshops under one of the 137 special instructors, who, themselves skilled artisans, command respect by their thorough workmanship. Nobody can see for the first time, without surprise, the pieces of furniture and dainty models which were shown at recent exhibitions, the work of the older lads in the grammar schools. So the city child is getting some of that all-round training which the farmer's boy gets as a matter of course on the farm, a training which has produced from the soil the most eminent Americans from President Lincoln downwards.

But indoor manual work, good as it is, is not the best for summer months. When the soft south wind blows and the sun shines through the windows beckoning to the outer air, the proper workshop is the garden. Of course in a monstrous city like New York space is lacking to give all the boys and girls a plot of soil to work; but, nevertheless, a goodly proportion have of late years been put in contact with nature's beauties. Of window or indoor gardens there were more than 6500 blooming last year, all tended by the youngsters; and on the outdoor gardens, the property of the board of education, there were 50,287 flower pots and 82,918 vegetable plots, to say nothing of the 29,539 plots under cultivation by scholars on property not belonging to the board—an amazing record for city-bred pupils. One result was the encouragement of tens of thousands of window gardens in the homes. Literally hundreds of teachers, to whose unselfish enthusiasm the rapid development of this work is due, gratuitously aided the young gardeners out of school hours, and financial help from the city treasury and from private sources did the rest. Thus, despite its many handicaps, the most crowded city in Christendom is forging into a front place in the development of a school activity which was supposed to be peculiarly ill-adapted to massed populations.

After so much training of hand and eye naturally a fair proportion of the graduates are ready to learn a trade if the opportunity offers. For several years the manual training high school, the commercial high school, and the practical departments of the other high schools have given courses which prepared, somewhat indirectly, for business life. But the specific teaching of a trade, in workmanlike shops, has had only about two years' trial—for boys in the vocational school established by the board, and for girls in the Manhattan trade school, which, established by a voluntary committee, was later taken into the school system. Both are fast enlarging and have justified themselves. The lads learn house carpentry and construction, cabinet work, wood turning, pattern making, electric wiring and installation, printing, machine shop practice, forging, plumbing, molding, bookbinding and industrial design. An automobile repair shop is about to be installed. The girls, who come mostly from homes which cannot afford more than a brief training to increase immediate earning power in trades not highly skilled, learn dressmaking, millinery, novelty work, machine operating and designing. The practical character of the instruction is proved by the output of goods commercially valuable. The boys' school did, during the year, $3437 worth of work for the department and the girls' school sold in the open market $7579 worth of goods.

Graduates of both schools show increased earning capacity and a rapid advancement when they enter shops. Case after case is reported in which a lad, within two or three months, had his wages raised to eight or nine dollars from the four or five dollars a week at which he started. At both schools teachers advise and help the graduates in getting a suitable job, the girls' school having a secretary to do exclusively this work, and to discover the kinds of work for which there is a demand, that the school may always keep in touch with the trades. In twelve months this secretary placed 486 girls, ensuring to them proper wages and suitable surroundings.

Within a year three additional evening trade schools have been opened, including an industrial school especially for colored persons, which will add several hundreds to the 4000 men, who, last winter, registered at the existing evening trade schools. The notable event in the history of these schools last winter was an agreement entered into, officially, with the pattern makers' union, under which the union will see that every apprentice to the trade attends the classes and will coöperate with the principals and the board in arranging the most beneficial curriculum and equipment. Such recognition by the workmen themselves of the value of the work done and the equal interest of employers, will turn the success of the evening trade schools, already assured, into a triumph.

Not many years ago the school buildings and grounds were shut tight for three months in the summer in New York, as in other cities, the children being left to welter on the streets while the teachers recruited at seashore and mountain. We have changed all that; and New York leads the way. Last summer in thirty-two different buildings vocation schools were conducted six weeks. These were not feeble imitations of the regular schools, but offered attraction which few unemployed youngsters could resist. The boys were taught venetian ironwork, wood work, whittling (that immemorial boy's delight), fret sawing, chair-caning and basketry. The girls (5000 of them) took cooking and housekeeping, sewing and dressmaking, millinery, embroidery, knitting, crocheting and basketry.

The making of bread and biscuit was specially emphasized; and, during the winter in many families "home made bread" has been possible because of the fact that daily lessons were given during the summer in the preparation of this staff of life.

Competent nurses gave frequent lessons on such important health matters as the cleaning of the teeth, individual drinking cups, and antiseptic preparations as well as elementary instruction in "first aid to the injured."

No wonder the percentage of attendance was high. No truant officers were needed to bring the "reluctant schoolboy unwillingly to school."

To help mother and to prevent the keeping of the older children at home "to mind the baby" morning kindergarten classes were also conducted in regular indoor kindergarten rooms, as well as one hundred and eleven kindergarten classes in afternoon playgrounds. These were brightly decorated with the handiwork of the little ones, and "cosy corners," "play lands," and "slumber lands" in corners showed where the babies were consigned. Story-telling by the teacher was general, the tots sitting wide-eyed and open-mouthed as the dramatized tale was unfolded.

In other places were playgrounds for mothers and babies, where the infants could sleep in hammock swings in the shade while the mothers, some of them "little mothers" but few years older than their charges, rested on the benches or gently swayed their infants and crooned lullabies to them.

Special attention was paid last summer to music and to song. An attempt was made to sing only good songs, the results showing a willingness on the part of mothers and children to accept higher standards. Some of the old-fashioned melodies like "Annie Laurie," "Auld Lang Syne," "Suwanee River" and "The Old Oaken Bucket" woke tender memories of the past to some weary mothers and gave to their children material for similar future memories.

Even the work of the vocation schools, attractive as it was, being done indoors, could properly be used only half the day. For the afternoons play for everybody was the rule at 248 centers, where over 600 teachers supervised baseball, basketball, rope quoits, handball and more formal gymnastics. In baseball a championship tournament was organized which roused great enthusiasm and kept teams at every center up to concert pitch. Field days were held on the public school athletic fields, when several thousand children would gather with their parents to enjoy the races and athletic features. For those who got tired of the bustle of the playground a game room and reading room offered checkers, dominoes, pictures, and puzzles, besides a collection of high class juvenile literature, provided by the New York library.

In the evenings, in some congested portions of the city, the school house roofs were equipped with electric lights and benches, small bands discoursed sweet music for part of the evening, and later the girls and women, to the bright strains, enjoyed folk and social dancing. Every place of the kind was crowded to its fullest capacity, the aggregate attendance during the season running close up to a million.

Altogether it may be claimed, in reason and with due modesty, that Father Knickerbocker did as much for his children last summer as any colleague in the world.

When the days shortened and outdoor sports and studies were no longer attractive the recreational classes for the young and blithesome and the serious classes for the studious were transfered to the warmed and lighted interiors.

Eighteen evening high schools and one hundred and one evening elementary schools, more than ever before, were opened for the winter months, for which, altogether, 112,000 pupils enrolled. No less than 40,000 foreigners enrolled for the study of the English tongue which was still to them a mystery, a fact which illustrates the unusual and burdensome difficulties with which the New York school system ever struggles. Only after two or three years' special work on the language are such students capable of profiting from the teaching in the regular courses.

For the less studious and for the neighborhood sociability forty-three recreation centers, thirty for men and boys and thirteen for women were conducted, where gymnastics, games, music, dancing and clubs of many varieties gave amusement and development to over two million visitors in the course of the season.

In the library and game room, books carefully selected to meet the wants of the youthful readers, magazines, checkers, chess and other games, bowls and a "correspondence table" offered rest and refreshment to many weary toilers after the labors of sweat shop, store, office or factory. Many tournaments in chess and checkers were run off. One man over sixty years old missed not a single night and defeated all comers at his favorite game of checkers.

For the first time teachers of music were assigned to a number of the centers and systematic attempts were made to organize glee-clubs and choruses. Round the piano forty or fifty youngsters would gather and warble more or less melodiously time-honored songs like "Way Down the Suwanee River," while, occasionally, some budding Caruso or Sembrich whom the teacher had discovered, would troll with spirit a popular air or a violinist would display his budding powers. In several of the centers small orchestras have been started. In some centers regular gymnastic squad work was maintained and creditable displays were given of exercises by groups on the horse, buck and parallel bars by the men. The women at the same time indulged in folk dancing, and athletic contests. As in the day schools, the aim in all the organized athletics was not to develop "stars," but good all round athletes, so that the average physical development would be improved.

"A center without clubs can have little real success," says the enthusiastic superintendent of their work. Club directors have therefore enlarged their activities until nearly 700 clubs—athletic, literary, social, musical, civic, philanthropic and so forth—were run during the winter for thousands of young men and maidens, under capable supervision, in rooms furnished by the board of education without any cost of money to the members. Such a mass of social service could hardly be duplicated in any other city. Still the work keeps growing. Boy scouts were recently added to the list of beneficiaries. Even more notable, an active competition has been started with the dance halls which have lured so many young girls to ruin.

Mixed dancing classes is at last a regular feature of the centers for girls and women. Each young man who takes part presents a certificate from the principal of his center to the effect that he is a member in good standing of one of the clubs. The music is played on a piano by a teacher regularly appointed as a pianist. Often, however, a violin or cornet or both, paid for by the membership dues of the young men, adds to the gaiety of the dance. The lower forms of popular music are barred, and, of course, the turkey trot, the grizzly bear and the other indecencies which found their way into high society are rigorously barred. Thus, under the fostering guidance of the women principals, who regard carefully all the conventionalities necessary, the school is able to raise the social tone of the neighborhood.

In conjunction with committees of citizens the board of education, last winter, gave high class concerts and moving picture displays for the first time. Under the will of Mr. Pulitzer funds were provided for giving orchestral music of the highest quality in working-class neighborhoods perfectly free. The board of education gladly coöperated by loaning the superb halls and organs in various high school buildings, with the result that packed audiences heard concerts that rivalled the best performances in Carnegie Hall. On a number of Sunday evenings, also in the high school auditoriums, concerts and lectures were given in coöperation with the Peoples' Institute, of the character which have made Cooper Union the synonym for peoples' evenings. Along with the same committee a start was also made with educational moving picture shows which drew great crowds.

All these new enterprises were supplementary to the evening lectures for adults, which, begun twenty-three years ago, have expanded into a veritable university for the people. In the season just closed extensive courses in electricity, on literature and on history were delivered, as well as shorter courses and single lectures on civics, geography, hygiene, travel, astronomy, music—on well-nigh every subject in which instruction could conceivably be desired. With 6000 lectures delivered to audiences which aggregated during the season close upon a million, this free, municipal university for the people takes rank with any institution of the kind the world over.

Altogether, the work of the New York board of education makes an amazing story, wonderful in its variety, stunning in its magnitude, incalculable in its beneficence. Yet, astonishing and inspiring as are the past achievements, there are still worlds awaiting conquest. Broad as has been the scope of the work in all its varieties it by no means covers the territory. To bring to all the children and all the people in Father Knickerbocker's family every opportunity which any of them now enjoy will involve the outlay of more millions. But the accomplishment of the past decade gives bright promise for the next decade. A metropolis which, within a few years, has pushed forward from the rear to the front of the procession of cities, will not readily relinquish its leadership. There is every indication that the rate of improvement will not only be maintained, but may even be accelerated.

THE NEW YORK POLICE SITUATION[1]

BY CLEMENT J. DRISCOLL[2]

New York City

"THE period of clamor and falsehood seems now to be passing, and the whole community is beginning to see how basely they have been imposed upon by the invented falsehoods which have been published, especially by those newspapers which pass among us under the name of degenerate.

"While all this falsehood and clamor against the force was going on, I watched with anxiety to see whether it was breaking down the discipline of the force, for which it was designed. I am happy now to congratulate the whole force on the admirable way in which they have conducted themselves under the most trying circumstances. Notwithstanding that one of their number was found grafting, I have faith in the force as a whole. Please communicate this to the force. It has been hard to suffer the abuse which they have gone through, except to those who consider the sources from which it came. What degenerates think of us is of no concern. We must look to get the estimate and good will of all intelligent and good citizens.

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[1] Immediately after the murder of Herman Rosenthal and the indictment of Police Lieutenant Becker, the following investigations were inaugurated:

August 5, 1912, the board of aldermen appointed a committee to investigate the police. Its final report is now in the hands of the printer.

August 14, at a mass meeting at Cooper Union, a citizens' committee was organized and formed into a non-official investigating body for the purpose of assisting the aldermanic committee and the district attorney. This committee filed its report with the legislature on March 19, 1913.

In September, District Attorney Whitman began a grand jury investigation of the police department, which was subsequently abandoned.

Following the confessions before the aldermanic committee of George A. Sipp and Mary Goode, implicating high police officials, the district attorney caused the indictment of many high police officials.

Early in March, the state legislature appointed a joint senate and assembly committee to investigate the New York police department. This committee did not conduct any investigation or study, but held a number of public hearings and invited former police and city officials to appear before it and give their views on how the police department should be managed. As the result of its work, a bill was introduced in the legislature creating a board of social welfare. The object of this bill was to remove from the police department all jurisdiction over gambling and disorderly houses and to place the enforcement of the laws against these vices in the hands of a non-salaried commission. The bill passed both houses but was vetoed by Mayor Gaynor.

The only legislation affecting the police department enacted at this session of the legislature was a law creating additional deputy police commissioners to the number of 19. This was vetoed by Governor Sulzer.

[2] Former deputy police commissioner and now connected with the New York Bureau of Municipal Research.

W. J. Gaynor."

Thus wrote the mayor of the city of New York, to his police commissioner on September 18, 1912. The letter from which the above is taken was published to the entire force on September 19, just ten days after the board of aldermen of the city had begun its investigation into the affairs of the police department.

On September 20, the police commissioner was a witness before the aldermanic police investigating committee, and in answer to a question of its chief counsel, Emory R. Buckner, defiantly stated: "There is nothing wrong with the police department except public clamor." Both of these statements "put heart" into the dishonest members of the force and made them more bold to obstruct the district attorney and the aldermanic committee in their researches. 10,500 members of the force had read to them the mayor's letter quoted above.

Nine months of investigation and research by the aldermanic investigating committee, the district attorney and his grand jury, have served to show that indeed there is much more the matter with the police department than public clamor. As the result of the researches of the Curran committee and the activity of District Attorney Whitman, one police lieutenant is now in the death house at Sing Sing, convicted of murder in the first degree. Four police inspectors are in the penitentiary. Two patrolmen are behind the bars at Sing Sing. One captain of police, a self-confessed criminal, is awaiting sentence. One patrolman, confessedly a collector for high police officials, is awaiting sentence. A lawyer, who confessed as to his part in police corruption, is awaiting sentence. A sergeant of police, five patrolmen, and five "citizen go-betweens," are under indictment for extortion, perjury, and bribery. The four police inspectors have also hanging over them many other indictments, and the district attorney is still following the trail of graft in the department pointed out to him in the confession of police captain Walsh.[3]

During the trial of these police barons, the workings of the "system" were laid bare, but the criminal investigation of itself would be of little value to the city except for the constructive study into the administrative methods of the department made by the Curran committee.

At the very outset of the inquiry the Bureau of Municipal Research placed at the disposal of the aldermen, without charge, its entire staff of lawyers, police experts, accountants, investigators, and stenographers. Thus Mr. Buckner was enabled to take over a well organized plant and undertake a constructive study of the department.

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[3] See article of C. R. Atkinson, National Municipal Review, vol ii, p. 439.

The aldermanic committee held eighty public sessions in the aldermanic chamber of the city hall, beginning September 10, 1912, and ending March 27, 1913. It received the testimony of 224 witnesses, and examined through the investigators of the Bureau of Municipal Research tens of thousands of documents on file in the police department and elsewhere. The record of the proceedings before the committee consists of 4,800 printed pages. The entire investigation cost the city $40,000. In addition to this sum, however, about $25,000 was expended by private citizens and civic agencies assisting the committee in its work.

A careful review of the printed record proves conclusively that corruption and inefficiency in the police department are for the most part due to administrative methods which make intelligent direction and accountability impossible. The organization with regard to rank was found to be without serious fault, and the record points out clearly that great reforms toward increased police efficiency can be attained with scarcely a change in the substantive law or statutes governing the creation of the department. The majority of the experts who have analyzed the record are agreed that the single change in the law needed to bring about a permanent reform is a longer term of office with added security of tenure for the police commissioner. The close observer of municipal affairs should not marvel at police inefficiency and corruption in a city of five millions of people where the police department has had eight police commissioners in eleven years. Not one of these commissioners had ever had any connection with police work prior to his appointment to command the 10,500 members of the department. Some of them were former army officials, others lawyers, politicians, and business men.

With each incoming commissioner came new rules and changes in the old regulations, and of course the "fad and fancy" of his lay mind. These "fads and fancies" and lay notions as to how a large police force should be managed, have been subject to such kaleidoscopic change that they have been productive of nothing short of chaos. No commissioner has ever been in command of the police department long enough to work out efficiently any scheme or idea of management. A commissioner to be successful must know intimately the personal history and character of all his commanding officers. He must become thoroughly familiar with the spirit and ethical standards of the entire force. Under the present system the policemen do not respect their commissioners.

Inspectors, captains, and lieutenants feel more powerful than the commissioner. They know that they are permanent, while he will probably be short-lived, and thus in passing among the members of the force one frequently hears it said: "Commissioners come and commissioners go, but the 'system' lives on forever."

Our policemen in New York have never been taught to understand that it is their sole duty to enforce the laws, but on the contrary each new commissioner creates a new policy of enforcement. One commissioner believes in the rigid enforcement of the excise law. Another permits and encourages a liberal enforcement. Some commissioners have attempted to enforce the laws against gambling and prostitution, while still others have been frank to admit that it was not their desire that the laws against commercialized prostitution should be rigidly enforced. The result, as made clear by the aldermanic investigation committee's record, is that the policeman realizes early in his career that the law which he is required to enforce today he must wink at tomorrow. It is but natural, then, that corruption and dishonesty must necessarily follow, because the policemen, realizing that his commissioner has no more legal nor moral right to have a policy of enforcement than he himself has, soon follows the example of his commissioner and creates his own policy of enforcement on his beat, to his own profit and gain.

A secure tenure, subject only to dismissal for proved inefficiency, would not only give the commissioner the necessary experience to become competent, but would go a long way toward breaking the backbone of the "system."

The aldermanic committee recommended to the state legislature in a preliminary report that the commissioner be appointed by the mayor for a term of eight years, subject to removal by the mayor and also by the governor, but in either case only after charges preferred and after he has been given an opportunity to defend himself in a public hearing.

In addition to the right of the mayor to prefer charges, it was also recommended that the board of estimate and apportionment or the board of aldermen by a majority vote should be given power to prefer charges against the police commissioner, and that the mayor be compelled to give a public hearing after reasonable notice.

This would not destroy centralization of power in the mayor nor relieve him from responsibility for the entire city administration, because he could remove the commissioner at any time after a public hearing. It would, however, place him under the moral necessity of publicly justifying his action. While it is indeed proper for the mayor to advise with his police commissioner on large questions of policy, it is destructive of discipline for the mayor to interfere in matters of administration.

The police commissioner is underpaid. If the city of New York desires the entire time of a first-rate executive, it should be prepared to pay a fitting salary. The present salary of the police commissioner is $7,500 per year. This salary should be increased to at least $12,000.

To eliminate police corruption and to encourage efficiency, it is necessary that the standard of character for entrance to the force should be raised. Except for their first two years of service, the policemen as a whole are well paid and the inducements to bright, active young men to join the force include a pension after twenty-five years of service, a pension to their widow or dependent children or parents in the event of death in the performance of their duty, a pension in the event of their becoming disabled in the service, permanent occupation and opportunities of promotion to the various commissioned ranks. Thus the police commissioner should demand and be able to secure the services of young men of the very highest moral standing. But the aldermanic committee in its investigation discovered that the examination into the character of the men appointed was wholly inadequate and that Commissioner Waldo appointed to the force men who had sworn falsely in their applications in order to conceal previous arrests, indictments, discharges from employment, etc.

One illustration will suffice to make clear the low standard of fitness for policemen accepted by the present police administration. Michael Imbriale when applying for the position of patrolman swore that he had never been arrested. Records in the police department which were specifically called to the attention of the present police commissioner, disclosed the fact that Imbriale had previously been arrested for murder, indicted, tried, and acquitted. Later he was accused of having slashed the throat of a sixteen year old boy with a razor. He was arrested, indicted, tried, and acquitted. Subsequently he was charged by his wife with cruelty and non-support. The files in the police department contained many complaints against the character of this man. The boy who accused Imbriale of having slashed his neck with a razor urged the police commissioner personally, as he did also the mayor, to refuse Imbriale appointment to the police force. Notwithstanding that Imbriale swore that he had never been arrested or complained against, and notwithstanding the appeal of this boy, the police commissioner made Imbriale a policemen. When Mr. Buckner questioned Deputy Commissioner McKay and the police commissioner concerning these appointments, and particularly concerning the appointment of Imbriale, he received answers which revealed the low standard of fitness for policemen in this city:

Deputy Police Commissioner McKay (page 642)

Q. Then if anybody can escape going to jail he is a good enough policeman for you, is that right?

A. Yes, sir; if the complaints against him are dismissed, he is a good enough policeman for me.

Q. Don't you regard that a very low standard for a police officer?

A. I never criticize the courts.

Commissioner Waldo (page 655)

Q. Commissioner Waldo, we were going over, this afternoon, the case of one of your patrolmen, Mike Imbriale, and we have already touched this case before. And I find he was appointed by you on June 28, 1911. We have had, this afternoon, evidence which I do not suppose you would recall of certain protests being made regarding the appointment of Michael Imbriale, whom Commissioner Cropsey had rejected, but whom you appointed after the Civil Service Commission had recertified him, and we find, among other things, a letter from the Mayor's office, concerning a complaint which was sent to Chief Inspector Schmittberger, on which he made a report to you. We also find a report of Commissioner McKay. It was the case of an Italian, and it was alleged that he had killed one man and cut the throat of another, although he had been acquitted by the courts on both charges. It was also alleged that he had sworn falsely regarding his ever being arrested. I wonder if you now recall anything at all about the case?

A. I do recall appointing Imbriale. I did not remember his name right away, but I recall the circumstances. In this country we have courts to try people who are charged with various crimes.

Since it is possible for a man to enter the police department with a lie upon his lips, one must not marvel when he reads in the daily press of policemen committing perjury in the courts, of policemen betraying the trusts imposed upon them by their superior officers, and of policemen selling to the highest bidder their testimony in important cases.

Incredible as it may seem, the committee discovered that a burglar previously convicted for his crime, whose picture and record adorned the walls of the Rogues' Gallery, had passed through the gate undetected, been presented with the shield of office, and sworn in as a public protector. It was not until he displayed again his criminal traits that he was exposed, and then instead of being removed from the force in disgrace was permitted to quietly resign.

The commmittee pointed out that the lack of proper and efficient character research was one of the most striking defects of the police department. Since it was possible for a felon upon the expiration of his term of imprisonment to join the ranks of the police department undiscovered, and for perjurers whose untruthfulness was known to the department and whose false statements were a matter of record to obtain appointment, then the casual observer need not marvel at the criminal activities of a Becker, a Sweeney, a Hussey, and a Thompson, as recently disclosed. The most scientific methods of efficiency, the most skillful administration, and the most intelligent executive control, will all fail in police work unless the entrance to the force is effectively guarded against untruthful, dishonest, and immoral men. The police force of the city of New York is today suffering from the laxity of investigation of years past, and the bulk of the corruption is among the superior officers who entered the gate when it was not guarded. The city is paying the penalty through police corruption and inefficiency of the dishonest methods of appointment and promotion of many years ago. It is an undisputed fact that in the past policemen purchased their appointments and their promotions. Many of these men are today the officers of the department.

That there has been wide-spread blackmail levied by responsible police officials upon the keepers of gambling and disorderly houses, was indeed established by the aldermanic investigating committee. The committee made no pretense of studying the gambling and prostitution subjects as moral questions, but simply as a police problem. Viewing the enforcement of these laws from a purely administrative viewpoint, a glance at the record of the aldermanic inquiry will suffice to show that police graft and corruption are due entirely to faulty administration. While it is apparent that the present police commissioner endeavored to enforce the laws against gambling—but failed in his efforts—it is equally apparent that he did not desire or attempt to enforce the laws against prostitution except where outward conditions were disorderly. That there was graft collected is not surprising when one considers the following facts in connection with the enforcement of the laws against gambling and prostitution, brought to light by Mr. Emory R. Buckner, counsel for the aldermanic committee:

1. A total failure effectively to check the work of police officials and to punish demonstrated inefficiency or significant inactivity.
2. A stubborn confidence in the integrity of the men selected by the commissioner to supervise this work.
3. Giving to the very men accused, for their own information, letters charging them with graft, without making any independent investigation.
4. The commissioner's lack of information as to actual vice conditions.
5. That the inspectors and captains were able to keep from the commissioner and his deputies information and the complaints of citizens. Indeed, two captains of police testified before the aldermen that they very frequently "tore up and threw in the waste basket" the complaints addressed to them by citizens.
6. Faulty methods of handling complaints sent to the commissioner.
7. The citizen complainant regarded as a hostile critic rather than as one furnishing information to the department.
8. A total lack of supervision over the testimony of policemen in the courts.

With a police commissioner having a fixed tenure of office and removable only by the mayor or the governor after a public hearing; with a searching inquiry into the character of men appointed to the police force; with the information concerning vice conditions properly used by the police commissioner, and delinquent inspectors punished for inefficiency or significant inactivity, the police department of the city of New York could easily be brought up to a high standard of efficiency, and police graft and corruption to say the least minimized.[4]

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[4] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. ii, p. 279.

CONDITIONS OF VICE AND CRIME IN NEW YORK AND THE RELATIONS TO THESE OF THE POLICE FORCE OF THE CITY[1]

BY GEORGE HAVEN PUTNAM[2]

New York

IT IS apparent from the evidence recently secured by the district attorney that the police force of the city is now, as in 1900, at the time of the appointment of the committee of fifteen, utilizing its responsibilities and the powers placed in its hands for the control of vicious and criminal conditions, for the purpose of securing gain for its members and for the powers back of the force.

The investigations carried on, in 1900–1901, by the committee of fifteen brought its members to the conclusion that the stringent laws enacted in Albany for the control of the social evil, the restriction of the sale of liquor and the suppression of gambling and of the pool-rooms, were the result of a combination between the chiefs of Tammany Hall and representatives of the up-state rural communities who had convinced themselves that it was practicable to make our great city moral by means of legislation and that their duty had been fulfilled when they had enacted laws to this end.

It is my belief, based on an experience of more than half a century as a citizen in this city, and of more than one-third of a century in work on the grand jury, that part at least of the difficulties in securing an effective and trustworthy administration of our police force is due to confusion in the minds of the legislators in regard to this matter. It is the honest belief of a good many people that all forms of sin and vice are to be treated as crime and to be controlled by law, and as such control, particularly in a great city like New York, is, of course, impracticable, we have as one result a contempt for law and as another the demoralization of the officials whose business it is to enforce the law.

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[1] See also articles by Clement J. Driscoll in this issue, page 401, and in the April issue, page 279, dealing with the investigation of the police department of New York City.

[2] This statement on the condition of vice and crime in New York and their relation to the city's police force was submitted by Mr. Putnam to the New York legislative committee on remedial police legislation of which Senator Wagner was chairman. This important contribution to the discussion received such scant attention both in the daily papers and at the hands of the committee that the editor feels justified in presenting it in its entirety to the readers of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW. Mr. Putnam is a long time observer of conditions in New York and his statement reflects not only his views as a thoughtful and public spirited observer, but as a member of the grand jury during a third of a century, as he himself points out in his statement. The committee to which this statement was submitted was appointed by the New York legislature at the instance of the representatives of Tammany Hall. It was the intention of the committee, according to a well informed correspondent, to prepare "a report that might offset the serious injury to the reputation of the Tammany administration which had been brought about through the action of the district attorney and by the investigations of certain citizens' committees." Ap-

It was the conclusion of our committee of fifteen, as a result of investigations extending over two years, that the purpose of the Tammany organization in bringing about the enactment of such laws had been the very substantial advantages to be secured in selling the privilege of breaking the law. We arrived at an estimate (the figures could, of course, be but approximate) that during the year 1900, the amounts secured through the sale of such privileges, a sale, of necessity, conditioned upon "protection" to be given by the police to authorized breakers of the law, aggregated no less than $2,500,000. I noted a report brought into print some months back that an estimate of $2,400,000 had been arrived at as the amount secured in 1911 through similar sales of law breaking privileges.

The estimate reached by our committee of the amount so paid in 1901 was arrived at by ascertaining specific payments made weekly or monthly by certain bad houses, pool-rooms, gambling houses and liquor shops, and by multiplying these payments by the number of concerns in the city doing a like business with similar receipts.

parently only that material was utilized by the committee as tended to put Tammany in a more favorable light.

As bearing on the same question the attention of the readers of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW is directed to the address of Dr. Frederic C. Howe, director of the People's Institute of New York on "The Police, Excise and Gambling Evil: Is the Trouble with our State Laws?" made at the City Club last November, in concluding which address Dr. Howe said:

> And I am morally certain of one thing in regard to these problems. If we had home rule, if this were our problem, and we were free to deal with it in our own way, if the city itself had to control it, I am certain that the first thing a mayor-elect would do would be to call into conference a group of men to help him work out that problem. I am sure he would say to them: "The most troublesome problem of all to me is this problem of vice. What will we do with it? What orders shall the board of estimate adopt? What policy shall we pursue? I want your help and assistance, your coöperation and advice."
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> And such a group of men would then be able to work on that problem as they cannot work on it today. They, we, all of us would face it as our own. It could not be dodged. It could not be avoided.
>
> And out of all the wisdom of this city, out of the immediate widespread, now impossible experimentation on the subject a program would be evolved for the social evil, the excise question and the saloon, that would be infinitely better than that which we have today. It would minimize temptation and protect the innocent. It would open recreation and alternatives to the street, the saloon, the dance hall. It would make its policy open and free to all without the payment of tribute, and would free the police from the policy of piracy that the state laws now inevitably produce.

There was in force a business system for assessing the amounts of these payments which were graded according to the estimated weekly or monthly receipts of the concerns protected. The system of the assessment provided, however, only for a minimum payment that was exacted. Extra charges were imposed from time to time as a result, for instance, of the coming in of a new captain or a new inspector, or in connection with special requirements arising from a municipal election.

It was impossible to carry on the machinery for making such collection throughout the entire city from these various divisions of law breakers and maintaining protection for those who had paid without the use of a large number of persons, chiefly, of necessity, officials. Each roundsman, sergeant, captain, or inspector, through whose hands the money passed, must, of course, be permitted to retain a portion or a percentage for his remuneration.

The statement recently made by Mayor Gaynor that not more than fifty members of the force were now concerned with the collection of graft moneys, is a manifest absurdity in the face of the evidence that a city-wide system for the collection of such money is again in force. Our committee was forced to the conclusion that a system has been arrived at under which after the payment of the several intermediaries, a substantial portion of the funds secured went into the general Tammany treasury. Some of this money was undoubtedly used for the benevolence funds administered by the district leaders. It is my impression, based not only upon the work of these two years but upon the knowledge that has come to me in other ways, that these benevolent funds have been on the whole well administered, and that they give very valuable help in cases of real need and misery. It is evidently, however, essential that the name of the beneficiary should be on the books of the district leader, and that the voters in the family assisted must hold themselves ready for work at the primaries and at the polls and in any other channels in which their service may be required.

During the past seven years, I have had experience in work on the later committee of fourteen, which, chiefly under the able direction of the Rev. John P. Peters, has done what has seemed to be practicable to restrict the serious evils from the Raines' law hotel—a combination of a drinking saloon and a place of assignation—that came into existence as a result of legislation attempting to prevent the sale of liquor on Sundays. The work of the Peters' committee has reduced these houses by more than two-thirds, and the other one-third are under such supervision as keeps their business fairly satisfactory, but the law itself, a fair example of unwise legislation due to ignorant sentiment, is an absurdity, and it ought to be repealed.

It is my belief that our police force contains today, and has contained through the period in question, excellent material. In my grand jury investigations, I have found myself continually impressed with the good judgment, the ability and the courage shown by the privates of the force in the handling of crime and of criminals.

It is evident, however, that no man entering the police can have any hopes of promotion, or can even be sure of retaining his position unless he accepts the system that is in force at the time. Any criticism on his part of the actions of his superiors, any willingness to give testimony that might bring his superior into criticism, or any lack of zeal in obeying instructions for service of whatever character constitutes, of necessity, a final bar to the man's success in the force.

Under pressure of this kind, the best material becomes promptly demoralized. The moral tone, or lack of moral tone, on the part of commissioner, inspector, or captain, comes to be promptly reflected through all the grades of the force.

Some years back, I had occasion during a municipal campaign in this city to refer in an open newspaper letter to a series of appointments made by Mayor McClellan. I was quite willing to believe that Mr. McClellan, himself a gentleman, would have preferred, by placing decent men in positions of responsibility, to secure a good record for himself and for his administration. As a fact, however, and doubtless under the pressure of instructions from the powers that had made him mayor, McClellan made some of the worst appointments that the city had known for years. He brought in, for instance, as commissioner of police a man who had been shown up by the Lexow committee investigation as a receiver of money from bad houses. This man, at that time holding a high position in the force, instead of demanding to be heard, promptly resigned from the force for the purpose of avoiding investigation. A few years later he was placed by Mayor McClellan in control of the police of the city. I had stated in print over my signature that such an appointment was not only a disgrace to the city, but was necessarily demoralizing to the police force, and for this statement I was sued for libel for an amount of $50,000. In place of making payment of the very much smaller amount which would have brought the suit to an end, (the claim was finally reduced to $1000) I insisted upon "justifying," i.e. making good my contention. As "justification," my counsel succeeded in getting before the court the record of the Lexow committee (which was, of course, a public document) and the jury gave verdict for the defense.

I do not myself believe that New York City, or any great community, can be made moral by legislation. I am convinced that it is unwise and unfair to bring upon a body of officials the pressure and the temptation to which the officers and the rank and file of the police are exposed in having in their hands the opportunity of selling the privilege of breaking the law, and who are in fact under instructions, obedience to which is essential for their own continued service, to make such sale and to extend the continued protection.

I believe that the control of its domestic affairs should be left in the hands of the voters of the city, and that the well-meaning up-state farmers, who can have no direct knowledge of our municipal conditions and difficulties, should be freed from any responsibility for the management of our problems.

The measures for the control or the supervision of vice of one kind or another would, under a home rule government, be shaped according to the standard of our own citizens. No laws can be effectively and consistently enforced which are not in accord with the ideals, the wishes, and the convictions of a substantial majority of the voters of the community. Laws which, instead of being enforced, are left as empty shams, lead to contempt for government and for the makers of law, and are demoralizing as well to the officials, who are charged with their enforcement, as to the people who are permitted to break them at will or as a result of graft payments.

If the city of New York had in its own hands the control of the liquor business, certain of the present restrictions would certainly be removed. Liquor selling on Sunday would, for instance, be permitted during certain hours on Sunday, as is found advisable in London and in other European cities.

The city would probably also decide to repeal the measures which make gambling a crime. I have myself no interest in and no sympathy with the practice of gambling; I think of it as folly which may easily develop into a vice. But I believe that if men are fools enough to be willing to throw away in this fashion money which ought to be better employed, they cannot be prevented by law from so doing and that it is unwise to make the attempt. I should, therefore, prefer to follow the practice of cities like London.

Under the methods of London, Paris and Berlin, places like the old-time Canfield's (the attempt to control Canfield's wasted the time of a series of grand juries), the business of which does not interfere with the peace or the quiet of the city, would be permitted to go on as long as the managers could secure fools to enrich them.

The municipal regulations ought, however, in my judgment, to be so framed as to remove from the streets suggestions or incentive for gambling. I would permit no signs, announcements, or advertisements of gambling concerns. The gambler should always be placed under the necessity of incurring some effort and of seeking the place for this special form of amusement.

A similar suggestion would apply to the management of pool-rooms. It may possibly however be a question for consideration, whether if a pool-room be permitted to carry on business, it would not be in order to determine through some competent authority as to the necessity for the business. I have had before me in our committee rooms and on the grand jury evidence that pool rooms which undertook to receive bets on races, held for instance in New Orleans, had no connection whatsoever between their offices or any race courses. The so-called "winnings" were distributed at haphazard or according to the judgment of the managers in such manner as to encourage continued "investments" on the part of the fools from outside.

The question of the legalizing of bad houses, or of accepting the necessity for their existence is one attended with enormous difficulties. In our committee of fifteen, we did not succeed, after two years' study, in arriving at any final conclusions or recommendations. In the operations of this committee and in grand jury investigations I have had before me evidence in regard to the management of certain of these houses, showing conditions that made it seem impossible to permit their continued existence but we were unable to arrive at any satisfactory conclusion as to the kind of supervision and regulation to be recommended.

It is evident, however, that a law which leaves in business houses of this class, whether the management be decent or abominable, from which regular payments are secured through the police and by the authorities back of the police, and which are closed out only when payments have been evaded or have been found impossible, is not in the interest of the community and that it is oppressive for the poor victims of the system who are themselves entitled to some protection.

The present system of supervising these houses by police officials who not only cannot be trusted as to intelligent discrimination, but who have an immediate interest in maintaining bad conditions because the profits from bad conditions are larger, is entirely unsatisfactory.

I have always found difficulty as foreman of the grand jury in inducing a majority of the voters to vote for an indictment against a liquor concern the business of which has been carried on in infringement of the law. The jurors understand perfectly that charges are brought only against a concern that has not met the requirements of the collectors. For one concern brought under charges, there will be fifty guilty of similar breaches of the law that have given the necessary satisfaction to the collectors and against which, therefore, no evidence can be obtained.

The jurors have shown more readiness to make indictments against bad houses, although with these also it was evident that the charges were as a rule brought against the house not because its management was particularly bad, but because it had failed to make the payment demanded.

The higher the fine imposed upon the manager of such a house, the "madam" the greater the burden that is placed by her upon the poor women under her control. Any fresh imposition upon the houses is likely to result in a diminution of the pittance left to the women.

The enormous responsibility of supervising a situation of this kind calls, of course, for a full measure of integrity of purpose and of wisdom of management on the part of the authorities, and such integrity and such wisdom are not to be found in a force the main purpose of which is not the preservation of the peace of the community, but the securing of profits for the higher officials and for the organization back of those officials.

It is my contention that the work of the police calls for a discipline that should be fully up to the military standard, As a veteran, I may possibly have an exaggerated belief in the value of army discipline, but I may recall that this is the standard that is in force for the police of Berlin, of Paris, and of London. In the latter city, I have for half a century been a tax payer, and I am fairly familiar with its conditions. The chief of police is a permanent official working under the direct authority of the home secretary. He retains his post for life or as long as he is physically capable of his duties, unless relieved for malfeasance or incapacity.

Believing, as said, in the wisdom of leaving our city in the control of its own affairs, I hold that the head of the city police should be appointed by city authorities. The appointment might be made by some such group of officials as those that now make up the grand jury list, for instance, the mayor, the district attorney and the judges of general sessions. The appointment should either be during good behavior, or at least for a long term of years. A man placed in such a post needs a series of years to secure knowledge of the conditions of the city and of the personnel of a force of ten thousand men. The post should be one not only of authority, but of dignity, and the salary sufficient to tempt a first class man to accept the burdensome responsibilities. Such a chief of police should be removable only under trial, a trial to be conducted under the direction of the authorities to whom he owed his appointment.

The chief should have full control over the force commanded by him; and inspectors, captains, and privates would, under my suggestion, be liable to reduction of rank or to dismissal after trial by a police court-martial, and without the privilege of further appeal. A man dismissed from the service should, of course, forfeit his claim on the pension fund.

We cannot free a great city like New York, the gateway to the continent, from vice and crime. We can do much to prevent the exploitation of vice and crime being made a source of enormous gain to the officials who are charged with the duty of controlling the criminals and with the responsibility of protecting the community.

A system which brings to a police force, and to a so-called political organization back of the force, large gains through the licensing and protection of crime, tends, of necessity, to the maintenance, and even to the development, of criminal conditions, and demoralizes the government of the city and the life of the community.

THE VITAL POINTS IN CHARTER MAKING FROM A SOCIALIST POINT OF VIEW

BY CARL D. THOMPSON[1]

Chicago

DURING the last ten years no less than four different and new forms of municipal government have been proposed and are being tried out. The commission form came first. But no sooner was it put in operation than certain serious defects were apparent. So the "form" began to be modified. It has been undergoing that process ever since. Some of the defects appeared to be so fundamental that new plans were proposed—plans that were given new names so as to win attention and approval which the mere commission form could no longer command.

Thus we have had the so called federal plan, the Sumter or city manager plan, and now most recently the representative council plan—all modifications of the commission plan.

It is our purpose in this article to consider the vital and necessary principles in charter making and suggest a plan containing some of the features of all the newer forms, but a plan formulated with reference to the principles and practice required rather than with reference to theories or plans already advanced.

DEMOCRACY AND EFFICIENCY—BOTH ESSENTIAL

Two things are vital and fundamental to good city government; namely, democracy and efficiency. How to attain the *one* and keep the other, how to adapt our forms and organization to this end—that is our problem.

To attain democracy we require a truly representative body—call it council, commission or what you will—the essential point is that it be truly representative. It should be elected by the people, controlled by the people and should be in all ways a true reflection of the sentiments, ideas, interests and purpose of the people.

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[1] Mr. Thompson is director of the bureau of information recently established by the Socialist party in Chicago. Before that he was city clerk of Milwaukee during the administration of Mayor Seidel. Mr. Thompson has also been for several years the secretary of the special committee chosen by the National Socialist Party for the study of commission government for cities. This committee has made an exhaustive study of the questions and has made two reports to party conventions. At the last convention the committee was for a second time continued and then charged with the work of further study of the forms of municipal government, with a view to the submission of a proposed form that would be consistent with Socialist ideas and principles. This report was made to the national convention held in May. Mr. Thompson's article is an outline of the plan submitted.

But such a body elected by the people, representing different and often contending forces and factions, changing constantly and sometimes suddenly, never has given us efficiency. And there seems to be no promise anywhere that it ever will. Yet efficiency we *must* have. Especially as we are constantly extending the function of municipal government in every direction. And this is what the socialists desire most of all. They especially, above all others, have reason to desire and insist upon efficiency in municipal government. The whole success of our plans depends upon it.

It is this imperative demand for efficiency, and the lack of it under the old council forms, that has given the greatest weight to the argument for the commission form of city government.

But there are considerations that outweigh "efficiency." Vital as it is, absolutely essential and increasingly so, there is one thing *more* essential and that is democracy. Efficiency may be a detriment and certainly will be unless it can be made to be efficient *in the interests of the people,* in the direction of the common good. Efficiency in the direction of further exploitation and plunder only makes things worse, not better. It is the *direction* of efficiency, the *purpose* to which it is put that determines its value. And the ability of the common need to make itself felt in directing efficiency is even more vital than efficiency itself.

Democracy, then, is even more vital than efficiency. Any sacrifice of democracy to efficiency cannot be regarded as a gain. It is rather a decided danger, a retrogression. The real problem then is to develop a form of municipal government that shall contain the two.

So far, every form of municipal government that has been in operation or that has been proposed (with the possible exception of the representative plan), is defective in the matter of democracy. The representative plan is an effort to remedy this fatal defect.

THE REPRESENTATIVE COUNCIL PLAN

This plan of city charter has been worked out by the secretary-treasurer of The American Proportional Representation League, C. G. Hoag.[2] The general idea is as follows:

1. A council elected at large by proportional representation.
2. A mayor elected by the council acting as presiding officer of that body.
3. A manager elected by the council and selected with sole reference to his qualifications as an expert and efficiency in municipal administration.

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[2] The plan was outlined in "Equity Series" and has been reprinted as American Proportional Representation League Pamphlet No. 1, January, 1913, and may be secured by addressing C. G. Hoag, Haverford, Pennsylvania. The April issue of *The American City* has a more recent and revised article by Mr. Hoag which presents the plan still more effectively.

4. Heads of departments *appointed* by the manager with the approval of the council, chosen with sole reference to their technical administrative qualifications and kept on the professional basis for indefinite periods during satisfactory service.

It will be seen at once that this plan supplies the one most vital element missing in all commission forms of municipal government, viz., democracy. For, in addition to the initiative, referendum and recall, which are features of this as well as of all the other forms, it adds *proportional representation,* which is the only truly representative system and is the nearest approach to democracy that is possible. We shall discuss the details of this feature farther on.

At the same time it provides for *efficiency* by putting the administrative departments upon a professional and efficiency basis. It really *fixes responsibility,* which the commission form everywhere claims to do, but which, it has always seemed to us, it did not do by centralizing the responsibility for administrative efficiency upon one official head—the manager. And this much more may be said in its favor—it appropriates the best features of the municipal government of Germany and England while avoiding the objectionable ones.

This plan seems to the writer to be far superior to the old council plan and to all modifications of the commission form. So far it is the nearest approach to a true conception of the proper function of municipal government. Our plan described below will follow the general principles of this proportional representative plan outlined by Mr. Hoag. At one or two points we shall depart from the details of that plan and in at least one very important respect shall differ from all of them.

ESSENTIALS OF MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT

Before discussing the details of the plan, it is well to state what seems to us to be certain essential features of municipal government in general. The following are, we believe, agreed upon by all:

1. *Home rule.* The first and most essential feature of efficient municipal government is home rule—the right of the city to govern itself with reference to all those matters which pertain to the city alone. Everywhere, throughout the nation there has been going on for years a very vigorous and effective movement in this direction, and a considerable degree of success has attended these efforts. Laws granting a greater or less degree of home rule to the cities have been secured in many of the states, notably California, Oregon, Michigan, Missouri, Oklahoma, Washington, Minnesota, Texas, Nebraska, Arizona and Ohio. The recent home rule law adopted in Ohio, as a part of the new constitution of that state, is perhaps one of the best of these home rule measures. Whatever else may be done in the effort to

secure efficient municipal government, this struggle for home rule must go on until it is completely successful.

In this connection, we may say in passing that a recent decision of the supreme court of Wisconsin declaring unconstitutional a certain state law which had been passed by the legislature of that state with a view of securing home rule for the cities, lends emphasis to the contention that has often been made that home rule to be secure must be based upon constitutional amendments. If this is the case, those who are fighting for home rule should not be content with amendments of their state laws, but should keep up the battle until their state constitutions are amended so that the victory may be final and secure.

2. *Direct legislation.* Practically all charter revisionists now seek to incorporate in some form provisions for direct legislation. Whether the charters are commission form, federal form, or whether an effort is made to merely improve the old form of charter, practically all agree in proposing direct legislation. The only point here to be guarded is the matter of percentages and forms required in order to make the provisions effective. The initiative should require only 5 per cent of the voters for the mere initiation of a measure, but 15 per cent or thereabouts—certainly not more than 20 per cent—to require the calling of a special election for the submission of a measure. Provision should also be made, and generally is made, for a "stay of ordinance" for a certain period of time, during which opportunity is given for a demand for referendum on the matter. The percentage required to force the submission of an ordinance which has been passed by the council and without popular vote should not be more than 15 per cent.

On the matter of the recall a special feature should be noted. Where proportional representation is introduced the recall should be made to operate against the whole group and not against a single councilman. For, if the recall could be used against an individual member of the group elected under proportional representation, the minorities would be at the mercy of the majorities. A group in the community, for example, that was large enough to command a single quota, might elect a representative to the council by some small fraction of the total vote. Whatever such a representative did would, presumably, be in conflict with the settled policy of the community as well as all the other representatives. If the recall were operative in such a case, it would be very easy for the majority parties to force such a representative out of office.

The further point to be guarded here is that the percentage required to insure a recall election shall be reasonable. It should not be so small that the stability of the municipal government could be disturbed by constant recall elections. It should not be so large on the other hand as to make it impossible to initiate the recall. We should say that experience has taught that a percentage of between 20 and 25 is about right for this feature of direct government.

3. *A representative council.* The only way to secure a truly representative council or governing body is by proportional representation. Every other method fails. The present and usual method of election everywhere is by pluralities or at best by majorities. And this is true of the commission forms as well as of the others. Where there are more than two candidates the successful ones are almost always elected by much less than a majority and sometimes by only a little more than a third of the voters. For a number of years Milwaukee was ruled by administrations elected by only a little more than a third of the voters. And this was true of the Socialist administration as well as the Republican and Democratic administrations that preceded it. Such a condition is wholly bad.

This objectionable feature is partly met in some of the commission charters by a system of two elections, the last of which is restricted to two candidates or sets of candidates, thus compelling a *majority* election. In others, as in the case of Grand Junction, Colorado, and Spokane, Washington, a similar result is attained by a system of preferential voting saving the expense and trouble of a second election.

But the fatal defect in all these systems is that they do not provide for minority representation. All of them eliminate all minorities from the governing body, either council or commission. This defect the proportional representation system will remedy.

ADVANTAGES OF PROPORTIONAL REPRESENTATION[3]

The advantages of this plan are numerous and very important. Among them may be mentioned the following:

The first and most important is, as indicated above, that it permits a representation of minorities. This advantage is so obvious that further discussion, we believe, is not necessary.

A second advantage is in the greater stability of the government. The new idea or new policy that is always struggling for expression will, under proportional representation, be gradually reflected in the council and will be represented there in proportion to its strength in the community. This permits of *gradual* change of policy and lessens the danger of sudden and complete overturning of things such as result from elections by majority or plurality.

[3] For a discussion of the general principles of proportional representation, as well as its history, its application to municipal elections and the details of its workings, the reader is referred to a book by John H. Humphreys, secretary of The Proportional Representation Society of England on "Proportional Representation." See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. I, p. 743.

This is important also as affecting the administrative side of the work. It is difficult to secure expert and specially trained men to serve in municipal administrations that are subject to sudden overturnings and changes of policy. Such changes are likely to result in interruptions of important undertakings and change of personnel that are fatal to efficiency.

A third advantage is that proportional representation permits, if it does not presuppose, party or group voting. It assumes that there will be differences of opinion upon matters of public policy in the municipality, just as there are similar differences in national and state affairs. It assumes that those favoring a certain policy will seek to work together in its behalf; that they will seek to effect the public policy in the direction of their convictions; and that to do so they will organize and conduct campaigns; will select candidates and seek to elect them; and that to facilitate the massing of their votes at the polls they will have ballots so designated as to enable the voter who desires to support their policies to quickly and readily choose his ballot accordingly.

THE NON-PARTISAN FALLACY

All of which is perfectly logical and quite obvious. Yet we have the astonishing fact that our whole host of municipal reformers in America have been swept off their feet with the so called non-partisan idea. As though by the simple device of striking the party name off of ballots we would eliminate, as by the stroke of a magic wand, all the evils of municipal misrule!

And the zeal with which the reformers have hunted out this witch of partisan elections and striven to drive it out is worthy of a better cause. The commission charter recently proposed in Traverse City, Michigan, for example, provides:

> The ballots for election of city officers shall be separate from any other ballot *and shall be without insignia, emblem, or designation*, etc. (Section 26).

The charters of Grand Junction, Colorado, and of Spokane, Washington, which are worded identically the same, are even more extreme. They provide:

> Nothing on the ballot shall be indicative of the source of the candidacy, or of the support of any candidate. No ballot shall have printed thereon any party or political designation or mark, and there shall not be appended to the name of any candidate any such party or political designation or mark or anything indicating his views or opinion.

Nothing could be more complete. These charters are not content with merely denying the Republicans, Democrats and Socialists the right to the use of their names as a means of helping the voter to quickly and readily select the ballot which will represent his conviction—they prohibit the use of any and all kinds of designations whatsoever on the ballot—anything and everything that would in any way connect an individual's name with the policies he represents.

At this point we dissent entirely from all the proposed forms. To exclude all possible designation from the ballots seems to us unwarranted and abortive. And we frankly believe not only that a partisan or designated ballot is right but that it is the best method for securing desirable results in our civic affairs.

There are distinct differences of opinion and different policies possible with regard to municipal affairs, just as surely as there are in state affairs. There is a wide range of possible legislation and administration in which the cities are free to act as they will. The cities also have large powers in the determination of methods of taxation and the distribution of the money raised. Under the home rule laws that are being passed this range of possibilities is being constantly increased. The question of the municipal ownership of water works, gas plants, electric lighting plants, street railways or other public utility is one upon which there is and must be a difference of opinion. And upon all these matters there are choices to be made among all sorts of policies, ranging "from those of the Marxian socialist through those of the single taxer to those of the out and out believer in plutocracy." Now, the only form of election that will enable the people to settle these questions and settle them intelligently will be such as enables them to express themselves in groups formed according to the policies advocated by the groups. And the form of ballot that will enable the voter at the polls to quickly and accurately express his purpose must be one that has some designation other than an individual's name. If there is nothing on the ballot, no distinguishing mark, that connects the names of the candidates with the policies which they represent, is it not obvious that that kind of ballot fails to supply the voter with the information he needs at the most critical point?

It may very easily happen that certain individuals may be prominent in the advocacy of certain ideas, while the actual candidates put forth may be much less prominent. The name of the individual, therefore, is not a reliable guide to the voter. In many cases it may be no guide at all.

Furthermore, allowing the names only to stand upon the ballot, with no distinguishing or explanatory remark, gives the advantage to the men of wealth and prominence. Elections carried on upon that basis put the working classes and the common people at a disadvantage.

The strong personalities are on the other side. Individuals who own banks, railroads and great daily newspapers are not on an equal footing with individuals of the working class. The latter have no hope of matching the power and influence of the former except by group action. And the possibility of that group action must be maintained up to the very moment that the ballot is cast.

In all of this the power of the press must not be overlooked. A minority party never has a strong press at the beginning. The press is generally on the side of the majority. By constant and imposing advertising, by judicious and adroit editorial writing, and a news comment now and then, the people may be made to believe that a certain candidate stands for things for which he really does not. This is one of the most common and most dangerous tricks of a capitalistically controlled press.

The people need the assistance of very possible device with which to meet these difficulties, and above everything else, they need a designated ballot to help them connect the individual candidate with the principles he is supposed to represent, and which also serves to connect the individual with the group of people that have put him forward as their candidate, so that they, too, may be held to account for him and his course after election. These principles, it seems to us, are fundamentally essential to the integrity of municipal as well as state and national elections.

Against the elimination of national party names and national issues even more may be said. Upon this phase we quote the report of the committee on the commission form of government made to the last convention of the Socialist party at Indianapolis, May, 1912:

> There is hardly a serious problem of municipal government that can be solved at all aside from a state and national movement. Take the question of home rule. Here in the very nature of the case the city is powerless in the hands of the state legislature. The fight for home rule itself is a state and national fight. Take the question of the commission form of government itself—it has been an issue for state legislation very largely. Or consider some of our commercial and industrial problems. The real difficulties that concern a people in a city, involve state and national issues. For example, the supply of coal for a city—what can any city in America do on a problem of that sort without state and national action? The city may establish a coal yard? But that is only the merest fraction of the problem. The coal must be shipped to the city over railroads that are owned by the monopolies and trusts. The transportation of the coal becomes a problem of interstate commerce. Thus the most elemental problem of the city becomes a state and national problem, a question requiring a consistent and comprehensive program for state and national action. To undertake to solve problems of this kind by limiting our efforts to local issues, and separating our cities from state and national issues, is absurd.
>
> It may be quite true that neither the Republican nor the Democratic national parties have anything in their platforms or programs looking to the relief of the people that live in cities. But to attempt to find relief from the evils that torment them, without state and national action, is the height of folly. If the Republican and Democratic parties have no program and no principles that apply to the great problem of municipal government, so much the worse for them. Let the people know it, the sooner the better.

Such is not the case with the Socialist party. It has a program—municipal, state and national. And each is a part of one consistent whole. The same principles for which the Socialist party stands in the state and nation apply with equal force, though with different details, to the city as well. And what is more, there is no solution of municipal problems apart from the principles of social democracy. And the principles of social democracy cannot be applied except through state and national action. The effort therefore to eliminate national and state issues and to prevent the organization of a state and national political party that shall have also a municipal program, is to block the way to a final solution of the problems of municipal government.

There is an issue in municipal government that is bound up inseparably with the state and national program. It is impossible to solve the municipal problems apart from these larger state and national problems. So the lines of this struggle may as well be drawn sharply and as closely as possible. We believe it to be the task of the Socialist party to bring this issue into the open and to make the people of this country realize that the struggle between plutocracy and the common people is not only a municipal struggle but a state and national one as well. And the effort to conceal this struggle by detaching the city and its issues and problems from the state and national situation, serves only to deceive the people and to prolong the period of their enslavement.

One of the chief advantages, therefore, of the proportional representative plan is that it makes possible and provides for the group or party, or, if you like it, partisan voting.

Some attempt has already been made to provide for proportional representation in some of the municipal charters. Amendments prepared by the Peoples Charter Conference of Los Angeles, 1913, include among others a provision for proportional representation. Although this particular measure was defeated the idea is evidently gaining favor in Los Angeles and its adoption seems to be only a matter of time and better understanding.

A final advantage in the proportional representative council lies in the fact that by making the body truly representative of all the interests and opinions that actually exist in the cummunity, it will obviate the necessity of constant appeal to the initiative, referendum and recall. This is, we believe, a decided gain. For while these devices are admirable for the retention by the people of the power to check or to supplement the council's legislation *if necessary* and to disentangle at any time one issue from all the others that may have been involved in the election of the councilmen, their use involves, nevertheless, a sacrifice of those opportunities for the threshing out and the amending of legislation by leaders which are offered by a representative body. A political system, therefore, which forces the people to have frequent recourse to the initiative and referendum, in order to avoid one-sided legislation, is gravely defective. The way to combine excellence with democracy in the determination of a city's policies is to provide for the use of the initiative or the referendum on the demand of small percentages of the voters, but to provide also so truly representative a council that the initiative and the referendum will be demanded very seldom.[4]

4. *A responsible executive.* Another essential feature in efficient municipal government is a responsible executive. It is very desirable that there should be some point at which responsibility for the administrative work of the city can be located, and through which administrative efficiency can be secured. This is accomplished in the representative council plan by separating the functions of the official position, usually known as mayor, from those of administration. To do this it is proposed that the city council shall elect both a mayor and a manager. The mayor is the official head of the city, is presiding officer of the council, and holds an honorary position at a nominal salary. This follows the English system. The manager on the other hand, is the administrative head of the city government and represents executive efficiency. He corresponds to the German burgomaster. This official, being given the power of appointing the heads of the departments, makes him at once the responsible head and gives him the power to secure efficiency.

The council should be free to select a manager solely with reference to his ability and efficiency in municipal administration. They should be free to seek for such a manager anywhere in the country or in the world, for that matter. He should not be required to be a resident of the city preceding the time of his selection. This idea follows the practice of the German municipal government, which is notoriously efficient.

5. *Efficient administration.* Equally important as an essential of municipal government is the requirement of efficient administration. To this end the heads of all purely administrative departments should be chosen solely with reference to ability, experience and efficiency in the particular lines for which they are chosen. In other words, the heads of the departments, as well as the chief executive officers, should all be upon a professional basis rather than upon a political basis. For this reason, provision is made in this form of government for the selection of the manager by the city council rather than by a popular vote. The idea is that the city council will be able to more effectively consider the necessary qualifications of a manager for technical-administrative purposes than it would be possible for the popular electorate to do.

In the same way the manager is given the right to appoint the various heads of departments. The only restriction is that these appointments shall be subject to the approval of the city council. It would be desirable that even this limitation should be exercised with utmost care so as to give the manager the greatest possible degree of freedom in the selection of those who are to work out with him the various administrative policies.

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[4] *Representative Council Plan*, p. 8.

With the two features of this form of government outlined above, we have a very decided improvement over all other proposed forms. The policy determining body being elected directly by the people reflects in exact proportion the will of the people as expressed in the various groups, organizations or parties. The administrative body, however, is selected with reference to another principle, i.e., that of efficiency.

6. *Provision for progress.* To the features of the municipal form outlined above, another one should perhaps be added. We shall undoubtedly have a steadily increasing extension of the functions of municipal government. The city which today owns and operates only its water plant will within the next few years undoubtedly undertake the ownership and operation of its gas plant, lighting plant and possibly its street car system. At any rate, this is the experience of cities in various countries. Again, the city which today has merely an ordinary health department will tomorrow extend its functions to care for children, to give free medical assistance to those who need it, to conduct day nurseries and perhaps to teach the mothers and help them in the care of their children. It is very desirable that these functions shall be carefully worked out and gradually introduced, so that the greatest degree of efficiency may be secured and the greatest assurance of their successful operation attained. To this end a suggestion from foreign municipal governments has already begun to be applied in some American cities. Non-salaried commissions are selected by the mayors or councils for the study of some new phase of municipal activity and perhaps for the development and conduct of the same during the period of experimentation. After the system is well wrought out and in successful operation, it then may be turned over to some department of the municipal government or made a separate department and thus take its place as one of the regular functions of the municipal government.

Where such an arrangement seems desirable, it may be provided for by the election of such commissions by the city council.

INSTRUCTION IN MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT IN THE UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES OF THE UNITED STATES[1]

BY WILLIAM BENNETT MUNRO

Harvard University

FIVE years ago the National Municipal League's committee on instruction in municipal government conducted an inquiry with a view to finding out how much instruction in the subject of municipal government was undertaken by the different universities and colleges of the United States. Circular questionnaires were addressed to more than two hundred such institutions situated in every part of the Union, including educational establishments of every rank from the largest universities down to the smallest rural colleges. As result of this investigation it appeared that one or more courses devoted wholly to the subject of municipal government were offered in forty-six institutions, and that about one hundred colleges maintained general courses in political science in which a part of the instruction was devoted to municipal affairs. Tables giving in detail the information gathered at this time were printed in the *Proceedings* of the League for 1908.

In view of the great interest manifested in all phases of municipal government during the last few years, it was thought desirable that a new investigation somewhat along the same lines should be undertaken in 1912, with the idea of discovering how far a growing popular interest in the subject had reflected itself upon the curricula of educational institutions. In its endeavor to secure full information the committee broadened its range of inquiry somewhat and questionnaires were this time sent to about four hundred institutions, including all those of importance listed in the report of the United States Commissioner of Education. These circulars called for data concerning the number of courses devoted wholly to municipal government, the number of courses devoted partly to municipal government, and the figures of students enrolled in each. Likewise information was sought concerning the methods of instruction, whether by lectures, discussions, or thesis work, the text-books used, and the opportunities afforded to students for practical training in the subject. Instructors were asked by the committee to indicate any way in which the National Municipal League might be of service in improving the range of materials available for instruction in municipal government, whether by the publication of an annual yearbook of municipal affairs, or by compiling for use in college courses a syllabus and bibliography of municipal government. Replies were received from one hundred and seventy-two institutions and in all these cases full answers were given to the questions asked in the committee's circular.

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[1] Beginning with 1900 the National Municipal League has given attention to the subject of instruction in municipal government in the universities and colleges of the United States. Its first committee of which the late Thomas M. Drown, president of Lehigh, was chairman, investigated the instruction being given in universities and colleges. Its reports are to be found in the *Proceedings of the National Municipal League* for the years 1901, 1902 and 1905. This committee was followed by another on the coördination of instruction in municipal government in the universities and colleges of the United States, of which Prof. L. S. Rowe of the University of Pennsylvania was the first chairman and Prof. William Bennett Munro of Harvard the second. The reports of this committee are to be found in the volumes of *Proceedings* for 1908 and 1909. The present investigation was undertaken by Professor Munro with a view to ascertaining what is now being done and what should be done.—C. R. W.

It appears from the data gathered by the committee that independent and distinct instruction in the subject of municipal government is given in sixty-four American universities and colleges as compared with forty-six institutions affording this five years ago. That is a very notable increase and illustrates the degree to which colleges are responding to the development of popular interest in this subject. Most of these institutions maintain only one course in this field of study, several of them provide two courses (as, for example, Swarthmore College, University of Cincinnati, University of Illinois, University of Wisconsin, and Columbia University), while a few of the largest institutions provide three courses. The number of enrolled students varies from five to eighty-six, the largest independent class being that of Professor Currier at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, which numbers eighty-six. For the most part these courses are attended by undergraduates, but a fair sprinkling of graduate students may be found even in the general courses offered by the larger institutions.

The methods of instruction naturally show no approach to uniformity. Some instructors conduct their classes wholly or almost wholly by lectures, although this method seems to be losing ground somewhat; others prefer the system of classroom discussions based upon outside reading either in a text-book or in official material. Most instructors endeavor to combine both methods. In something more than half of the courses devoted wholly to municipal government, a thesis or written report upon an assigned topic is required. Some instructors prefer several short reports to one long thesis, particularly where undergraduates are concerned. It is the practice in a few institutions to allot a general task to the whole class, as, for example, the work of preparing a city charter. This is done by assigning certain sections to each student, requiring him to present his proposals for discussion and adoption by his classmates.

Opportunities for some sort of actual contact with the practical problems of municipal administration are afforded by fifty-five institutions. Such opportunities are of the widest possible variety and depend of course upon the location of the college. Where the institution is situated in or near a large city or a state capital, the facilities for training of this sort ought to be most abundant. It appears from the data gathered by the committee, however, that while the opportunities may not be so extensive in the case of colleges located in smaller municipalities, more work of a practical nature is really undertaken by students in these latter institutions. In many of these it is the custom to have city officials lecture occasionally to the classes, to have the students attend meetings of the council or municipal boards, and in some cases to assist in minor official investigations. Particularly at the time of the regular municipal election a good chance is afforded to those college students who desire, by serving as checkers or watchers at the polls, to gain a first-hand acquaintance with the workings of electoral machinery.

In many educational institutions both large and small, there exist political clubs or, in some cases, city government clubs which hold regular meetings throughout the college year and secure speakers for such meetings from among the officials of neighboring cities. By means of debates on various questions of municipal government both in the class-room and at the meetings of these clubs, a useful method of stimulating undergraduate interest in the subject has been commonly employed. In a few cases the "vacation report" plan has been used with satisfactory results, each member of a college course in municipal government or of a political club being asked to make some small investigation during the Christmas or Easter recess in his home city. The results of this study are presented to his classmates after the re-opening of college.

Attention is devoted by colleges and universities, for the most part, to the study of American city government only; but some have broadened the scope of their work so as to include a study of European city government as well. Where this latter field is included, however, it is usually in an elementary way and with a view only to securing a proper background for the study of municipal administration in this country. A few instructors endeavor to follow a syllabus or outline of topics, but the majority do not appear to have pursued this plan. There seems, however, to be a strong sentiment that a suitable syllabus, if prepared under the auspices of the League or some other capable supervision, would increase the efficiency of instruction in the subject. In response to the committee's query as to whether such a syllabus would prove of service, eighty-four instructors answered in the affirmative, while eleven expressed the opinion that such a syllabus would probably be of service. Three instructors replied with a decided negative, one expressed doubts, and nine either expressed the opinion that a syllabus would not be of assistance to them or made no answer to the committee's inquiry on this point. Practically all of this negative expression of opinion came from instructors in the larger institutions, while by far the greater portion of the affirmative replies came from instructors in the smaller colleges. It appears, therefore, that the programme of instruction in municipal government at the larger institutions has been already worked out with such care that no practical benefit would probably be obtained by the preparation of a syllabus or outline, but that in the great majority of colleges the materials and methods of instruction are still at a somewhat transitional stage and that a publication of this sort, if prepared on a sufficiently flexible basis, would render a real service. The chief objection to the use of any extended syllabus is that it tends to stereotype instruction and to take from a course that quality of constant adjustment to changed conditions which is, from every point of view, extremely desirable. In the larger institutions, moreover, the printed syllabus is too often a source of undue advantage to the professional tutor and to the vendor of typewritten notes. The instructor who announces at the beginning of the year just what reading will be required from week to week, extends thereby an invitation to some bright student to prepare summaries for his classmates wherever the classes are too large to permit personal questioning of every student from day to day. As it is scarcely practicable to print a new syllabus each year, the use of such an outline might indeed, under some circumstances, prove a deterrent to progress in the methods of instruction rather than an incentive.

One of the distinct needs of present-day instruction in municipal government, it appears, is for a working bibliography of literature on the subject. Since the publication of Professor Brooks's compilation a dozen years ago, no serious attempt has been made in any quarter to classify and make available, either for instructors, students, or the general public, the large annual output of literature on the subject of municipal administration. The time has undoubtedly come for such an undertaking and, in response to the committee's inquiry on this point, ninety-six instructors express the opinion that a bibliography would prove of service to them. Only eight expressed themselves as having no interest in the proposal, while seven showed some doubts as to its feasibility or usefulness. An undertaking of this sort would involve a large expenditure of labor and probably some outlay in money, for the literature of the subject has been very large during the last decade; but the results of the committee's investigations prove that from the standpoint of service both to college instruction and to the reading public, the enterprise is one which ought to be undertaken either by the National Municipal League or by some other body of men interested in the subject.

Students of municipal government have found a serious handicap to their work in the fact that we have in this country no local government yearbook corresponding to the *Year Book of the United Kingdom* or the German *Statistisches Jahrbuch deutscher Städte.* The annual report on the statistics of cities of over 30,000 issued by the United States Bureau of the Census is of great value as far as it goes, but it gives little more than the figures of population and the statistics of municipal finance, with nothing concerning the administrative organization and the non-financial activities of American cities. Moreover, this publication does not usually appear until two or three years after the date at which the statistics have been compiled. Ninety-five instructors expressed the opinion in response to the committee's questionnaire that a municipal yearbook of the United States would prove of service to them in their work. About a dozen had doubts concerning its utility or believed that the undertaking could not be successfully carried through.

An interesting feature of the replies received on these three questions was the apparent readiness on the part of many instructors to coöperate in the preparation of a syllabus or a bibliography or a municipal yearbook. Several instructors volunteered to give a part of their own time to such enterprises if undertaken on a coöperative basis. From several colleges which do not now offer any independent instruction in municipal government the committee received the suggestion that the publication of a syllabus, bibliography or yearbook would be of importance in making independent instruction possible in their institutions.

The committee's circular included also the following general query: "Have you any suggestion as to how the League, either through its administration of the Baldwin Prize competition or otherwise, might be of further service to instructors in municipal government?" In response to this question came a considerable number of suggestions which cannot, of course, be very easily tabulated. Some of the more important, however, ought to be mentioned. One instructor suggested that the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW should publish every three months a short critical bibliography of books, pamphlets and articles on current municipal affairs, and that reprints of this section of the REVIEW should be sent to every college offering instruction in municipal government. Another suggestion was that if instructors were asked to submit for publication in the REVIEW short articles of good quality written by their best students, this would stimulate interest in their courses. Prof. R. C. Brooks made the interesting suggestion that the National Municipal League might get together a collection of lantern slides illustrating municipal progress in both foreign and American cities, and that these slides, with brief printed explanations of each, should be loaned at nominal expense from time to time to college instructors for use at one or two class meetings. This suggestion is one which appears to the committee to be very well worth adoption. From one institution comes the suggestion that special provision should be made for the enrollment of college students as members of the National Municipal League at a reduced membership fee. From another the committee received a proposal that the League should prepare and distribute to the debating societies of colleges and schools, lists of suitable topics in municipal government for intercollegiate and interscholastic debates, with suggestions as to books from which materials for such debates might be obtained. Some other suggestions received by the committee, however, were hardly so concrete in their nature. One college president, for example, expressed the hope that the League might "succeed in creating a conscience that shall lead people to refuse to remain responsible for the iniquities of our time;" but gave no hint as to the practical steps through which any advance in this direction might ever be taken.

Owing to the limited nature of their resources, many colleges have not found it possible to establish independent instruction in municipal government, but have endeavored to handle this subject in connection with their general courses in political science, sociology and economics. The courses in American government, if they are at all comprehensive in scope, must deal to some extent in the government of cities. Instruction in public finance, if it is to be made worth while, must take the student into the field of municipal taxation and accounting. Courses in sociology naturally include many topics which connect themselves directly with departments of city administration such as health, poor relief, and housing. The committee has not been able to follow up all this incidental instruction; but has endeavored in a general way to find out how much attention is given to the subject of municipal government in the regular courses on political science. Nearly every college in the country has one or more courses of this nature, and one hundred and eighteen institutions report that some attention is given to municipal government in their general political science instruction. This is a slightly larger number than the figure of five years ago. The time allotted to municipal government in general courses varies from two to thirty exercises per year. Where there are independent courses on municipal government little time is devoted to this subject in the general courses; where there is no independent instruction, the general course must supply the gap so far as it can. From some of these latter institutions intimation has come that a separate course in municipal government will be arranged whenever the resources of the college permit. The intrinsic importance of the subject seems everywhere to be recognized.

Such statistical data as lends itself to compilation in tables has been arranged as an appendix to this report. It should be stated that this tabulation does not include statistics of instruction offered in professional schools, many of which offer courses bearing directly on problems of municipal administration. Many engineering schools, for example, afford instruction in municipal engineering and sanitation; some of the larger law schools have courses in the subject of municipal corporations; the best equipped medical schools of the country give instruction in hygiene and the public health; schools for social workers give training both theoretical and practical in the methods of municipal poor relief; while schools of commerce and of business administration are giving attention to municipal accounting and kindred subjects. The amount of instruction afforded through these channels is large, but accurate statistics concerning it are somewhat difficult to obtain.

In concluding this general survey of instruction in municipal government a word or two may perhaps be said concerning the experiment in the methods of undergraduate instruction represented by the establishment of a bureau for research in municipal government at Harvard University.[2] Through the generosity of two Harvard graduates the University was enabled to establish a year ago a special library and workshop for students in municipal government. In the rooms set apart for this subject a collection has been made of city charters, ordinances, and other official materials covering practically all American cities of any importance. In addition the publications of reform organizations, city clubs, research bureaus, and a host of other such organizations are secured as they appear and placed on file. All periodical publications relating to municipal affairs are also received and placed at the disposal of students. A special librarian is constantly in attendance to guide the students in their thesis work and in the making of the special reports which are assigned to them from time to time. This institution differs from the bureaus maintained by cities throughout the country in the fact that it does not have as its primary aim the supplying of information for public authorities. Its chief purpose is to afford facilities for the proper training of students in the use of first-hand materials relating to the subject. From time to time requests for data are had from city officials or from semi-official organizations, and these requests are always complied with. But the main purpose of the establishment is to afford the discipline of training rather than to secure such information as may happen at the moment to be needed by some municipal officer. The results of the experiment during the past year have demonstrated to the entire satisfaction of those immediately concerned that this is the best way of teaching the subject. The time has gone by when a real grasp of municipal problems can be obtained by any one, whether in college or outside of it, by the study of somebody's text-book. Intimate contact with the live, day-to-day material is what the student must have if he is to obtain mastery of even a small part of the subject.

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[2] A list of somewhat similar bureaus in other American universities may be found in the REVIEW for January, 1913, p. 56.

REFERENCES FOR TABLES

(*a*) Incidental instruction in courses on history, sociology and government, and in debating

(*b*) Incidental instruction in courses on economics and government.

(*c*) Incidental instruction in courses on government (or political science).

(*d*) Incidental instruction in courses on economics and sociology.

(*e*) Incidental instruction in courses on sociology, social problems or American society.

(*f*) One course on municipal chemistry and one on municipal sanitation.

(*g*) For 1911–12; in 1912–13 there will be two courses on municipal government.

(*h*) A course on civics.

(*i*) One course given in Law School on corporations.

(*j*) The total time given to municipal government in these three courses would be equivalent to one course, three times a week for one semester.

(*k*) New course.

(*l*) Parliamentary law, acting as city council.

(*m*) Course on government and sociology.

(*n*) Six hours to municipal government.

(*o*) Courses of research or seminar courses.

(*p*) To be increased to forty-five hours in 1912–13.

(*q*) Ten weeks to municipal government.

(*r*) Incidental instruction in course on economics.

(*s*) Incidental instruction in course on economics of engineering.

(*t*) Other courses treat of municipal problems.

(*u*) Incidental course.

(*v*) About thirty hours devoted to municipal government.

(*w*) Several courses in history, government and economics.

(*x*) Offered for the first time in 1911–12; registration in 1912–13 is 29.

(*y*) This course is entitled "American Social Conditions and Municipal Problems."

INSTITUTION	WHERE LOCATED	COURSES DEVOTED WHOLLY TO MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT				COURSES DEVOTED PARTLY TO MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT			
		Number	Amount of time given	Number of students		Number	Amount of time given	Number of students	
				Under-graduates	Graduates			Under-graduates	Graduates
			Hours				Hours		
1. Adelphi College	Brooklyn, N. Y.	1	45	12		1	45	67	
2. Albany College	Albany, Ore.					(*a*)			
3. Allegheny College	Meadville, Pa.					1	30	35	
4. Amherst College	Amherst, Mass.					(*b*)			
5. Atlanta University	Atlanta, Ga.					2	90 each	17	
6. Barnard College	New York City					1	90	38	
7. Bates College	Lewiston, Me.					(*c*)			
8. Beloit College	Beloit, Wis.	1	45	12–20		1	90	35	
9. Benedict College	Columbia, S. C.					(*d*)			
10. Bowdoin College	Brunswick, Me.					1	45	51	
11. Buchtel College	Akron, Ohio					(*c*)			
12. Carthage College	Carthage, Ill.					(*b*)			
13. Central University of Iowa	Pella, Iowa					1	45		
14. Central Wesleyan College	Warrenton, Mo.					1	18	13	1
15. Clark College	Worcester, Mass.	1	30	16					
16. Clemson College	Clemson College, S. C.					1	20	850	95
17. Coe College	Cedar Rapids Iowa					(*e*)			
18. Colby College	Waterville, Me.		(*k*)						
19. Colgate University	Hamilton, N. Y.					1	75	47	
20. College of the City of New York	New York City	1	45	13		2	30(*f*) 30	60	28
21. Colorado College	Colorado Springs, Colo.					2	60 45	53	
22. Columbia University	New York City	2	30 each	12	51	1	90	190	
23. Concordia College	Fort Wayne, Ind.					1	60	258	
24. Cooper College	Sterling, Kan.					2	45 each		
25. Cornell University	Ithaca, N. Y.	1(*g*)	45	61	3	1	45	77	
26. Dakota Wesleyan University	Mitchell, S. D.					1	45	20	
27. Dartmouth College	Hanover, N. H.	1	45	30		1	90	100	
28. Davidson College	Davidson, N. C.					(*c*)			
29. De Pauw University	Greencastle, Ind.					(*e*)			
30. Dickinson College	Carlisle, Pa.	1	120	25		2	30 each	56	
31. Drury College	Springfield, Mo.	1	30	25					
32. Earlham College	Richmond, Ind.	1	36			1	60		
33. Elon College	Elon College, N. C.					1	90		
34. College of Emporia	Emporia, Kan.					1	45	34	
35. Fisk University	Nashville, Tenn.					(*h*)			
36. Franklin College of Indiana	Franklin, Ind.					1	60		
37. Furman University	Greenville, S. C.					(*b*)			
38. George Washington University	Washington, D. C.	1	45	10–12	2–3				
39. Georgetown University	Washington, D. C.					(*i*)			
40. Goucher College	Baltimore, Md.					1	120	34	
41. Grinnell College	Grinnell, Iowa	2	30 each	35					

NOTE:—Explanation of italicized letters will be found on page 434.

INSTITUTION	WHERE LOCATED	COURSES DEVOTED WHOLLY TO MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT				COURSES DEVOTED PARTLY TO MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT			
		Number	Amount of time given	Number of students		Number	Amount of time given	Number of students	
				Under-graduates	Graduates			Under-graduates	Graduates
			Hours				*Hours*		
42. Guilford College	Guilford College, N. C.					1	60	12	
43. Hamline College	St. Paul, Minn.					1	20	35	
44. Harvard University	Cambridge, Mass.	3	90	50	5	2	90	479	
			90	7	4		45	14	13
			45	43					
45. Haverford College	Haverford, Pa.					3	45(*j*) each	78	
46. Heidelberg University	Tiffin, Ohio					2	45 each	10	
47. Hendrix College	Conway, Ark.					(*d*)			
48. Hope College	Holland, Mich.	1	60	35		2	60	150	
							60	135	
49. Illinois College	Jacksonville, Ill.	1	45(*k*)						
50. Illinois State Normal University	Normal, Ill.					3	150	9	4
							60	40	
							60	60	
51. Illinois Wesleyan University	Bloomington, Ill.					1	30	35	
52. Indiana University	Bloomington, Ind.	1	90	10	2	2	(*k*, *v*)		
53. James Milliken University	Decatur, Ill.					(*b*)			
54. Juniata College	Huntingdon, Pa.					(*c*)			
55. Kansas State Agricultural College	Manhattan, Kan.					1	60	200	
56. Knox College	Galesburg, Ill.	1	60			1			
57. Lake Forest College	Lake Forest, Ill.					1	30(*l*)	25	
58. Lawrence College	Appleton, Wis.	1	45	48	2	2	45	28	3
							60	42	
59. Lincoln Memorial University	Cumberland Gap, Tenn.					1	75	25	2
60. Lincoln University	Lincoln University, Pa.					(*d*)			
61. Macalester College	St. Paul. Minn.					2	45		
							60		
62. Massachusetts Agricultural College	Amherst, Mass.					1	45	14	
63. Massachusetts Institute of Technology	Boston, Mass.	1	30–45	86		2	30 each	300 each	
64. McMinnville College	McMinnville, Ore.					(*m*)			
65. Miami University	Oxford, Ohio	1	54	17					
66. Mills College	Mills College, Cal.	2	45			1	30		
			45						
67. Millsaps College	Jackson, Miss.					(*d*)			
68. Milton College	Milton, Wis.					(*b*)			
69. Mississippi Agricultural and Mechanical College	Agricultural College, Miss.					(*b*)			
70. Mt. Holyoke College	South Hadley, Mass.	1	45	40					
71. Muhlenberg College	Allentown, Pa.					(*e*)			

INSTITUTION	WHERE LOCATED	COURSES DEVOTED WHOLLY TO MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT				COURSES DEVOTED PARTLY TO MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT			
				Number of students				Number of students	
		Number	Amount of time given	Under-graduates	Graduates	Number	Amount of time given	Under-graduates	Graduates
			Hours				*Hours*		
72. Nebraska Wesleyan University	University Place, Neb.	1	30	50		2	60	25	
73. New York University	New York City	3	60		5	1	90	58	
			30 (*o*)						
			30 (*o*)						
74. Normal College of the City of York	New York City	1	45	15-20		1	90	75	
75. Northwestern University	Evanston, Ill.	1	45	7		1	(*n*)		
76. Oberlin College	Oberlin, Ohio	1	45	22	1				
77. Ohio State University	Columbus, Ohio	1	45	15					
78. Ohio University	Athens, Ohio	1	45	30					
79. Oregon Agricultural College	Corvallis, Ore.					1	45	80	5
80. Oskaloosa College	Oskaloosa, Iowa					(*h*)			
81. Parsons College	Fairfield, Iowa					(*m*)			
82. Penn College	Oskaloosa, Iowa					2	45	19	
							45	15	
83. Pennsylvania College	Gettysburg, Pa.					1	60	8	
84. Pennsylvania State College	State College, Pa.	1	30 (*p*)	65					
85. Polytechnic Institute of Brooklyn	Brooklyn, N. Y.					1	(*q*)	45	
86. Pomona College	Claremont, Cal.					1	45	48	
87. Purdue University	Lafayette, Ind.					1	90	24	
88. Radcliffe College	Cambridge, Mass.	1	90	7	2	1	90	39	
89. Rhode Island State College	Kingston, R. I.						(*r*)		
90. Richmond College	Richmond, Va.					1	45	20	
91. Rockford College	Rockford, Ill.					(*c*)			
92. Rutgers College	New Brunswick, N. J.					(*c*)			
93. Smith College	Northampton, Mass.					1	90	100	
94. State University of Iowa	Iowa City, Iowa	1	45	16	1	1	60	48	
95. Stevens Institute of Technology	Hoboken, N. J.					(*s*)			
96. St. John's College	Annapolis, Md.					(*b*)			
97. Swarthmore College	Swarthmore, Pa.	2	30	20	1	1	90	37	1
			30	31	1				
98. Talladega College	Talladega, Ala.					(*d*)			
99. Trinity College	Hartford, Conn.	1	(*o*)	15		1	90	40	
100. Trinity College	Durham, N. C.					1	90	35	
101. Tufts College	Tufts College, Mass.					1	45	18	
102. Union College	Schenectady, N.Y.					(*c*)			
103. University of California	Berkeley, Cal.	2	60			2	90	340	
			45				90	36	4
104. University of Chattanooga	Chattanooga, Tenn.					(*r*)			
105. University of Chicago	Chicago, Ill.								
106. University of Cincinnati	Cincinnati, Ohio.	2	34	22		2	50	29	
			34	47			50	31	
107. University of Colorado	Boulder, Colo.	2	30	33		1	30	13	1
108. University of Illinois	Urbana, Ill.	2	45	30	2	1	45		
			45		3		(*t*)	140	

INSTITUTION	WHERE LOCATED	COURSES DEVOTED WHOLLY TO MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT				COURSES DEVOTED PARTLY TO MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT			
		Number	Amount of time given	Number of students		Number	Amount of time given	Number of students	
				Under-graduates	Graduates			Under-graduates	Graduates
			Hours				*Hours*		
109. University of Kansas	Lawrence, Kan.	1	45	24	2	1	75	163	
110. University of Maine	Orono, Me.	1	30	24		1	30	21	
111. University of Michigan	Ann Arbor, Mich.	1	30	20	4	1	45		
112. University of Minnesota	Minneapolis, Minn	1	45	51		1	(*o*)		
113. University of Missouri	Columbia, Mo.	1	30	18	1	2	75 each	100	
114. University of Nebraska	Lincoln, Neb.	3	30 each	36	14				
115. University of North Dakota	University, N. D.	1	60	6					
116. University of Oklahoma	Norman, Okla.					1	30	4	
117. University of Oregon	Eugene, Ore.	1	30	4		2	45	45	
							45	25	
118. University of Pennsylvania	Philadelphia, Pa.	1	60	15	19	1	60	20	
119. University of Pittsburgh	Pittsburgh, Pa.	1	60	24					
120. University of Rochester	Rochester, N. Y.	1							
121. University of Southern California	Los Angeles, Cal.	1	45	16	2	2	30	40	5
							60	7	7
122. University of South Carolina	Columbia, S. C.	1				1	45	40	
123. University of South Dakota	Vermillion, S. D.					(*u*)			
124. University of Texas	Austin, Texas	1½	30	10	5	2	90 each	140	
125. University of Utah	Salt Lake City, Utah					1	90	20	
126. University of Virginia	Charlottesville, Va.					1	90(*v*)	65	4
127. University of Wisconsin	Madison, Wis.	2	30	48	1	2	30	60	8
			45	40	10		45	30	
128. United States Military Academy	West Point, N. Y.					(*c*)			
129. Ursinus College	Collegeville, Pa.	1	30	10					
130. Utah Agricultural College	Logan, Utah	1	45	6					
131. Vassar College	Poughkeepsie, N.Y.	1	45	14					
132. Washington University	St. Louis, Mo.	1	60	30					
133. Wellesley College	Wellesley, Mass.					2	90	20	
							45	17	
134. Wells College	Aurora, N. Y.					(*w*)			
135. Wesleyan University	Middletown, Conn	1	45	85					
136. Western Reserve University	Cleveland, Ohio	1	45	40		1	90(*n*)	65	
137. West Virginia Wesleyan College	Buchannon, W. Va.	1	30	10		1	180	20	
138. West Virginia University	Morgantown, W.Va.	1	30	5–10		1	30	6–12	
139. Wheaton College	Wheaton, Ill.					(*c*)			
140. Whitman College	Walla Walla, Wash.	1	30	10		1	90	38	
141. Willamette University	Salem, Ore.					2	45	15	3
							45	18	3
142. Williams College	Williamstown, Mass.	1	45(*x*)	28	1				
143. Worcester Polytechnic Institute	Worcester, Mass.					1	60	115	
144. Yale University	New Haven, Conn					1	90 (*y*)	100	6
145. Yankton College	Yankton, S. D.	1	60	7					

No figures could be obtained from Brown University, the University of Chicago, or Princeton University.

SHORT ARTICLES

REVIEW OF GRAFT PROSECUTIONS AND EXPOSURES FOR THE PAST YEAR

IT IS no joy in muckraking that has led the writer to undertake to compile for the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW a summary of the leading graft cases in America for the past year. If space permitted in this connection an attempt would be made to show that this formidable array of graft is traceable to a comparatively few eradicable causes; and further, that far from being a subject for pessimistic conclusions the scandalous revelations of the past year are a sign of approaching civic health.

In preparing this article reliance has been placed largely upon the news columns of the daily press. The compilation may not, therefore, be exhaustive but it is believed that no material fact has been misstated.

In searching newspaper columns for graft material one can hardly escape the conviction that the evils charged against newspaper exploitation of crime are more than offset by the service rendered through publicity. A compilation of editorial opinion on graft exposures for the past year would make this more evident. If we can not accept without corroborative evidence the statement of the *Evening Wisconsin* that "despite the revelations regarding the prevalence of grafting which have been rife of late in the United States it is probable that there is less of that sordid vice on this side of the Atlantic than on the other," we can agree with this journal that "this is no reason for the apathetic endurance of graft that exists" and we can endorse the prediction that "graft will never be eliminated in public office until it has been driven out of private life." It is encouraging also to read in the Pittsburg *Leader* that "the grafter and corruptionist are being ousted and the doors closed and locked with locks provided by progressive reforms." And it may be good for the souls of all of us as we peruse the record of official graft to give heed to the words of warning of the *Ohio State Journal:* "Whenever a man loafs on a job, or adds an item of expense that does not belong, or makes a thing cost more than it ought to, he is a grafter."

Arranged arbitrarily in the order of their apparent gravity the graft records of American communities for approximately the past twelve months seem to be as follows:

New York City. The world-wide notoriety of the Becker case is justification for its mere mention in this review, giving space chiefly to the less well known but almost equally appalling disclosures which were the outgrowth of the Rosenthal murder and the death sentence imposed upon the police lieutenant. Before the winter was over three committees, one appointed by the state legislature, one by the board of aldermen and one by an organization of citizens, together with a John Doe investigation conducted by Justice Goff on the order of Governor Dix, were busily engaged in unearthing the graft of Gotham and considering ways and means of suppressing its future growth. But the practical immediate results were secured through the activity of District Attorney Whitman and the extraordinary grand juries coöperating with him. As a result the highest police officials ever brought to bar are either serving time in the penitentiary or are facing trial as this is being written.

Aside from the conviction of Lieutenant Becker and the four gunmen, the most effective work of the district attorney was done in Harlem, the section of New York City above 106th Street between the East and Harlem Rivers, considered one of the best business and residence portions of the city. Captain Walsh, who had been in command of the 126th Street Station since April, 1907, made a complete confession implicating Dennis Sweeney, James E. Hussey, James F. Thompson and John J. Murtha, in turn inspectors in the Harlem district. These men were placed on trial in the supreme court on April 29 on the charge of conspiracy in plotting to buy the silence of a resort keeper and convicted. They still await trial on the more serious graft charges. The testimony of Captain Walsh cleared up the mathematics of the graft situation in Harlem: "I collected from saloons, gambling places and disorderly hotels. Fifteen to 20 per cent went to Eugene Fox, a patrolman who collected for me. The rest I divided with Inspectors Thompson, Hussey, Murtha and Sweeney as they took charge of the district in turn." It is estimated that by this system $500,000 was mulcted annually from Harlem.[1]

In the same Harlem net the district attorney caught James F. Robinson for years Inspector Sweeney's most trusted graft collector, getting for him a six to ten-year term in Sing Sing; Geo. A. Sipp, former proprietor of a Raines law hotel in Harlem, who made a full confession after a conspiracy had been defeated to spirit him out of the court's jurisdiction; Policeman John J. Hartigan, convicted of perjury in swearing falsely for the system either through a feeling of loyalty or, as is suspected, for a cash consideration; Edward J. Newell, Sipp's former lawyer, who pleaded guilty to the charge of wilfully persuading a grand jury witness to remain out of the jurisdiction; and a number of minor police officials. And the district attorney intimates that he has just begun to fight, his objective point being the head of the "System" at headquarters.

[1] Before the Curran committee, Samuel H. London, from an actual census reduced to a card index form, swore that there were 26,000 women in New York City who handed over a part or most of their earnings to men connected with the "business."

In his prosecutions, District Attorney Whitman was greatly assisted by women who had run disorderly resorts in the city for years. Their apparently truthful evidence concerning the amount of money the police had wrung from the fallen sisterhood was even more shocking than the revelations of the Becker trial.

Omitting numerous minor charges, dismissals and convictions in aldermanic, fire and police circles during New York's 1912–13 campaign against graft, the unhappy condition of the metropolis in high and low places will perhaps become sufficiently evident through the mention in conclusion of the conviction of Charles H. Hyde, formerly city chamberlain, and one time law partner of Mayor Gaynor, for bribery in connection with the performance of his official duties.

Says Rabbi Lipkind:

> However, amid these disconcerting revelations there are one or two compensatory features that show a healthy complexion, that give promise of some amelioration for the future, and one is this: The general and persistent movement toward exhaustive investigation of present conditions, for probing to the root of the evils that surround us. There seems to be an impatience with abuses that until now were considered permanent and ineradicable characteristics of America.

Chicago. In Chicago the air has been filled for the past year with charges of big and petty graft, bribery and various forms of political corruption but no such developments have resulted as in the city of New York. For a time, however, the testimony of Michael Heitler, known as "Mike de Pike," promised material for another Rosenthal case. Heitler laid bare the alleged politico-police graft in the old westside levee, charging Barney Grogan, saloonkeeper and west side Democratic boss with being the head of the graft syndicate of which he (Heitler) was one of the collecting arms. But Heitler is still alive and Grogan still a tower of political strength.

Equally ineffective was the attempt to involve John I. Tansey, a Roger Sullivan henchman, who was acquitted by the county civil service commission over the protest of the president of the charge of having extorted a bribe of $300 in return for which he was to see that a certain name was placed at the top of the list.

Charges of graft in connection with the purchase of property for the county hospital site and other irregularities on the county board were freely made but it is difficult to tell whether official dishonesty or political rancor is mostly responsible for these charges.

Chicago has been giving much attention during the past year to the question of segregation with special reference to conditions on the south side. Public opinion seemed to favor the wiping out of the disorderly resorts and a series of spectacular raids under the direction of Prosecuting Attorney Wayman followed. The public conscience having been thus satisfied, a sufficient number of resorts later opened up quietly in less offensive forms.

The activities of the organization known as the "United Police" were investigated by the civil service commission beginning in the latter part of December. On the 21st of January the commission reported that the United Police had raised a "slush" fund of $60,000 for the purpose of bribing the state legislature and city council but had failed in its purpose. The discredited organization thereupon disbanded and the commission issued a strong recommendation against permitting prospective successors and ordered embezzlement charges to be filed against William J. Stine, former president of the United Police and unfaithful custodian of the $60,000 "slush" fund.

A large number of cases of petty but very annoying graft have been charged during the year against the building and smoke inspectors and a few convictions have been secured. These conditions led Mayor Harrison to appeal to the public for aid in stamping out petty grafting by city inspectors.

The graft situation developed by the local authorities and the vice investigation conducted by the senatorial welfare commission were doubtless the inspiration for the resolution offered in the state legislature by Representative Frank J. Ryan for a joint legislative investigation of the relation of public service corporations with the legislative bodies and public officials of Chicago and Cook County.[2]

Philadelphia. Henry Clay, director of public safety under Mayor Reyburn for four years ending December, 1911, and Colonel John R. Wiggins and Willard H. Wall, heads of the Wiggins Construction Company, building contractors, were convicted of conspiracy to defraud the city of Philadelphia in the alteration and erection of public buildings. On April 2 they were sentenced to serve not less than eighteen months nor more than two years in the penitentiary and to pay a fine of $500 each. Suits have been begun by the city against the Wiggins Construction Company to compel it to refund $150,000 which it is alleged to have fraudulently collected from the city.

Atlantic City. Of the nine councilmen involved in the attempted million dollar concrete boardwalk swindle, three were acquitted, four confessed their guilt and two, Harry F. Dougherty and John W. Murtland, were convicted in December and sentenced to terms in the penitentiary ranging from one to three years. Dougherty was convicted on dictographic evidence secured by Detective Burns. Fines of $1000 and costs of the prosecution were also imposed on each defendant.

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[2] Representative Ryan in an interview said: "The system, backed up by such public utilities corporations as the Peoples' Gas, the Commonwealth, Edison and Chicago Traction Companies, has dominated certain newspapers, corrupted public departments, public officials, city councils and legislators too long."

Detroit. The arraignment in September, 1912, of seventeen Detroit aldermen and former Council Committee Clerk Edward R. Schreiter, for accepting bribes in return for municipal favors provided one of the most discussed graft sensations of the year. Schreiter confessed, the cases of seven of the councilmen were dismissed and the remaining ten were bound over and are still awaiting trial.

Clinton, Iowa. Thirty-one indictments were returned against three county officials, two former officials and three contractors and supply men, sharers in graft in the construction of bridges and other county work. As a result of the exposures, two supervisors were forced to resign and $23,000 has been refunded to the county.

West Hammond, Ind. Miss Virginia Brooks continued her campaign of the previous year against vice and graft in West Hammond. During the summer and fall of 1912 many sensational reports came from this quarter, at one time the county, state and federal governments all conducting investigations there. This spring Miss Brooks announced that the little city had become a model in clean government and morality.

Gary, Ind. Former city clerk, Harry Moose, whose disappearance in the spring of 1912 brought the bribery cases against Mayor Thos. E. Knotts, aldermen and former city officials of Gary, to a sudden conclusion, returned in November and was convicted and sentenced to a prison term. As a consequence of this trial an investigation of the official doings of Mayor Knotts was begun by the state board of accounts. On March 29 the board reported to Governor Ralston serious shortages of Knotts making him liable to criminal prosecutions. The specific charge of the board is the illegal retention of fees, fines and other moneys by Knotts acting in the capacity of police judge at the same time he was drawing a salary of $1500 as mayor.

Milwaukee and Des Moines. Charges of receiving double pay have also been made in Milwaukee and Des Moines but without any serious developments. In Milwaukee the Socialists charged the city clerk's staff with illegally drawing two salaries from the city through receiving pay for night work on the city tax roll; in Des Moines the board of supervisors began in January an investigation of the cost of probing criminal cases brought before the grand jury, the principal charge being that police officers of the city also received compensation for appearing before the grand jury.

Bloomsburgh, Pa. An unusual case of grafting was presented to a commission for trial by the district attorney at Bloomsburgh. Three judges were accused of accepting bribes for liquor licenses but the men involved were all associate or lay judges and not regular or law judges of the court.

In a few counties of Pennsylvania the old system of electing laymen to sit as associates on the bench with the law judges is still preserved.

Atlanta, Cleveland, Columbus, Dayton, Denver, East St. Louis, Portland, Providence, San Francisco, Seattle, St. Louis. In the remaining larger cities of the country graft developments have not been serious. The rumors and charges in some cases were weighty enough, but they have not as yet been followed up with adequate proof that has come to the writer's attention.

In Atlanta the smoke commission has investigated serious charges of bribery against the "smokeless" furnace interests alleged to be seeking special privileges. In Cleveland the padding of city payrolls has been charged. Columbus has investigated alleged graft in connection with city contracts for asphalt pavements. Dayton acquired much newspaper advertising through a Burns investigation with dictograph accompaniment and grand jury probe. Denver has led the list with grand jury indictments of city officials and corporate heads but there has been thus far a lack of developments promised by the initial proceedings.[3] In East St. Louis charges were made by M. M. Stephens, former mayor and member of the City Protective Association, that the lawless element paid $3000 to $5000 a month for protection and that an assessment of $15,000 for a campaign fund was levied on the "bad lands." Providence has wrestled with the question of graft in its highway department. San Francisco has brought to light but one case of embezzlement, due to faults in the check system recently put into effect in the city administration.[4] Seattle has discovered corroborative evidence tending to show that, as suspected by the council, the city has been regularly swindled under the garbage collection contract. St. Louis has indulged in charges of grafting against workhouse officials and the plumbing department, with counter charges of "frame-up" on the part of the accused, all without definite result so far as heard.

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[3] The latest from Denver is the charge made by Sheriff Daniel M. Sullivan that nearly every policeman in Denver collects regular tribute from women with the knowledge of higher public officials. The vice district in Denver was closed recently by order of the fire and police board. Since that time, according to the sheriff, practically all the former denizens of the underworld have moved into the residence section of the city, where cadet practices are thriving unmolested. The sheriff's charges are under investigation by the grand jury.

[4] A much more serious condition has just developed in San Francisco in the matter of the alleged relations of police officers with a gang of confidence men in the city's Italian quarter. Eight police officers were suspended by Chief of Police White pending the investigation by the commission of the charges of collusion made by convicted bunco men. The police commission later postponed its hearing until after the trial of the accused officers in the superior court, which is now progressing. The guardians of the law are charged with having received a 15 per cent "rake-off" from a gang of confidence men who secured $300,000 in one year from San Francisco's foreign population.

Five additional policemen are involved by the immigration authorities in charges of protecting women held as undesirables for transportation.

MINOR CASES

Bloomington, Ill. True bills filed against mayor and chief of police alleging omission of duty and malfeasance in office.

Canton, O. Chief of Police Smith suspended by order of mayor and charges investigated that vice league exists among dive keepers to permit gambling, cock fighting and Sunday saloons.

Darke County, O. Court house officials sentenced for collecting fraudulent bills.

Elkhart, Ind. Chief of police and assistant resigned while under investigation on charges of grafting in office.

Evanston, Ill. Investigation of charge of grafting made by "blind pig" operator against alderman.

Keokuk, Iowa. Chief of police dismissed after having been under fire for several months.

McComb, Ill. City weigher ousted, charged with padding weights of coal and pocketing proceeds.

Marinette, Wis. Grand jury indicted sheriff for accepting money for protection of gambling house.

Montgomery, Ala. Discrepancies in accounts of state convict department investigated and found not so large as at first thought.

Muncie, Ind. Affairs of the police department investigated. No official statement.

Newport, Ky. Henry Reusch, former delinquent tax collector, pleaded guilty of embezzling $14,000 of city funds and sentenced to a term of two to ten years in the penitentiary.

Niagara Falls. Supervisors Joseph Percy and Clifford H. Bowman convicted of having tried to bribe supervisors to vote for favored poor house architect and sentenced to terms in penitentiary.

West Seneca, N. Y. Grand jury investigated alleged charity sewer graft with special reference to statements made by Henry Lunn, convicted former chairman of town board.

C. R. Atkinson.[5]

RECENT INTERESTING DEVELOPMENTS IN BERLIN

THE phenomenal increase in the number of foreign visitors to Berlin within the last fifteen years has resulted in making that city as interesting to travelers now as it has been for years to students of city government. The visitor to the capital of Prussia and of the

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[5] Lawrence College, Appleton, Wis. See article on "Recent Graft Exposures and Prosecutions" by the same author, National Municipal Review, vol. i, p. 672.

German Empire, whether he remain for a few weeks during the summer or for an entire year finds opportunities for study and recreation, and above all the possibilities of a comfortable enjoyable daily life, unexcelled by those of any city in the world. Naturally even a laymen is interested in hearing of new developments in a government which is able to provide such well-paved, well-cleaned streets, such beautiful parks, such magnificent public buildings, such admirable transportation and such freedom from slums and other centers of poverty and filth.

To the student of city government Berlin is of particular interest because of the fact that the Prussian system of city government, which works well in little towns of 1000 inhabitants or less is just as satisfactory in the metropolis of over two and one-half million people. In France the municipal code of 1884 was not applied to Paris. In England the epoch-making municipal corporations act of 1835 and its successor the consolidation act of 1882 were not extended to the capital. In each of these cases it was thought that the general law could not be applied with advantage to the capital city of the state. In this country, the city of Washington has a form of government wholly different from that of other cities in the United States. But Berlin is governed by the same law which applies to cities of, it may be, only a few hundred inhabitants.

Inasmuch as the government of Berlin varies in no essential respects from that of other Prussian cities, it is not the purpose of the writer to treat a subject which has already been dealt with in various works in English,[1] but rather to point out some recent governmental events of interest in the German capital. Two of these are of particular importance, viz., the election of a new mayor for the city proper, and the creation of a new unit of local government for the entire metropolitan area.

As is well known, the election of a mayor in a German city is as much a business proposition as is the election of a director of a private business corporation. Political considerations are excluded and the city council acting through the administrative board goes systematically about finding the best man for the place. In the smaller cities it may be necessary to advertise in the public press for applicants to fill such a vacancy. In a city like Berlin the fact that a vacancy exists is universally known among the persons interested and of course applications would be numerous enough without any such action.

That the cities have a wide field from which to choose their mayors—the larger cities have two, a first and a second or vice-mayor—and are not necessarily restricted to officials of prior municipal experience, if there are others available who seem to be possessed of the necessary qualifications to a higher degree, is well shown in the election of the new mayor last year.[2] The retiring mayor, Herr Kirschner, who served in that capacity for thirteen years in Berlin was called there from the same post in Breslau, one of the most important positions of that character outside of the capital in Prussia. Before that he had been mayor of Bromberg. He resigned the Berlin position at the age of seventy, largely because of his years, and partly because of some difficulties arising in the administration.

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[1] See, among others, William B. Munro, *The Government of European Cities*, pp. 109–208; Herman G. James, *Principles of Prussian Administration*, pp. 128–146. Berlin has 144 councillors, 34 members of the administrative board and two mayors.

When the city fathers were confronted with the necessity of selecting a successor for that important position, their difficulty was not so much in finding duly qualified men as in choosing among a large number of candidates, any one of whom would have been qualified by natural ability and training to fill the post. So some of the influential men were favorably disposed toward Dr. Adickes,[3] for years the mayor of the important city of Frankfort. Others inclined toward Herr Dernburg, formerly secretary of colonial affairs in the imperial government.

But the choice finally fell on Herr Wermuth, who had just resigned the position of imperial secretary of the treasury. The new incumbent of the office presents the rather unusual spectacle of a man elected to the most important municipal position in Germany, if not in Europe, without any prior experience in similar work in other cities. He had extensive administrative experience in other lines, however, in which he displayed qualities that proved his possession of the requisite executive ability.

Herr Wermuth entered the Prussian government service at an early age and was made privy councillor in the department of the interior when still a young man. In 1893 he was made president of the German commission to the World's Fair in Chicago and was in a large measure responsible for the success of the German exhibit there. After returning to Berlin he was promoted from one position to another and finally in 1909 he was made imperial secretary of the treasury. In that capacity he displayed great energy and initiative and became one of the most prominent figures in the government. In the spring of last year he came into conflict with the chancellor on the question of the inheritance tax and resigned. A few weeks thereafter he was elected to the Berlin position and his election confirmed by the crown. Today, a man fifty-eight years of age, with undoubted capacity for administration he is expected to handle the increasingly difficult problems of the government of Berlin to general satisfaction.

In an earlier part of this paper it was pointed out that Berlin is unique as a capital in being governed by the same laws as other cities of the state, great and small. With the enormous growth of the city in recent years, however, some problems have arisen that called for special treatment. But they are problems caused not by mere increase in population, but by the fact that this increase has been to a large extent outside of the corporate limits of the city proper. This brings us to the consideration of a second development of even greater importance than the election of the new mayor, namely the organization of the new municipal corporation for Greater Berlin.[4]

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[2] For the following facts concerning the retiring and the incoming mayors of Berlin, the writer is indebted to Guenther Thomas, Berlin special correspondent of the *New Yorker Staats-Zeitung*.

[3] For years a member of the National Municipal League.

The urban territory consisting of Berlin and the surrounding communities comprises besides the city proper, six other "city circles" and two "rural circles"[5] with a total population of over 3,500,000. The "rural circles" comprise a number of communes, the eight most important of which are regarded for the purposes of this law as independent units. As all these various public corporations constitute in reality a single urban area, there were inevitably matters which concerned them all in common and yet were not within the jurisdiction of any central authority.

Among the concerns which were especially in need of some unified treatment were the housing conditions of the poor, the park and playground facilities for the children of the working classes, and transit facilities which would give the congested areas cheap and rapid communication with the surrounding open country. These and other matters could be satisfactorily dealt with only if there were some central authority. But such central authority did not exist and twenty years ago consolidation was opposed by the fear of the Berlin authorities that the city would be burdened with the upkeep of schools, etc., for the poorer outlying districts. Since that time, however, these suburbs have attracted the wealthy taxpayers from the city proper and consequently every attempt since then to solve the difficulty by incorporation of the surrounding corporations with the city proper has been blocked by the determined resistance of the smaller communities which objected to losing their independent existence.

Finally the demand for some steps in the direction indicated above led to the creation by state law of a new corporation for special purposes which should be competent to deal with these matters without, however, swallowing the surrounding corporations which still retained their independent existence for all other purposes except those specified in the law. Unions of local corporations for special purposes of common interest had been introduced by law in some provinces of Prussia as early as 1891 and by law of 1911 the subject was regulated for the whole of Prussia save Berlin.

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[4] For some of the facts concerning this latest development in Berlin city government, the writer is indebted to an article written by Dr. Ahrens of Berlin at the request of the Amerika Institut in that city and kindly put at the disposal of the writer by the Institut. The text of the law may be found in the official collection of Prussian laws (*Preussische Gesetzsammlung*), for 1911, p. 123.

[5] "Circles" are administrative subdivisions in Prussia for both state and local matters and include both urban and rural communes. But the larger cities, over 25,000 inhabitants, regularly constitute "circles" for themselves called "city circles" while "rural circles" include less thickly populated areas as well as smaller urban centers. See James, op. cit., pp. 112–122.

The Berlin law of July 19, 1911, creates a new public corporation or union (Zweckverband Gross Berlin) of the sixteen communities mentioned above with the corporation of Berlin proper and gives it jurisdiction over the three classes of matters for which a central authority was considered most essential; street railways, building undertakings, and open areas for parks, playgrounds, etc.

The organs of government of the new corporation are constituted along the lines followed in Prussia for local government in general: a general council, an executive committee and a director.

The council is composed of one hundred representatives of the constituent corporations, under the chairmanship of the first mayor of Berlin. The councillors are apportioned among the local corporations on the basis of population, each corporation having at least one representative. To insure against control of the council by the representatives from the city of Berlin—which comprises over two-thirds of the population—there is a provision that no one of the constituent corporations may have a number of representatives on the council exceeding two-fifths of the total membership. The representatives for each unit are elected by the governmental organs thereof. Any resident of the local corporation is eligible to membership in the council provided he is eligible to a place in the local governmental organs.

Among the enumerated functions of the council are: the determination of the budget, the audit of accounts, the passage and amendment of local by-laws, the apportionment of the contributions to be levied on the different local corporations, the negotiation of loans, the framing of the general policy of the union, the management of its property, the creation and filling of corporate offices so far as not provided for in the law, the election of the director, lay members of the executive committee, and other executive officers of the union, the enactment of measures in the field of activity assigned to the union, and the acquisition and disposal of corporate realty. The council meets at least once a year on convocation of the chairman and as much oftener as the chairman or a third of the members may demand.

The executive committee consists of the first mayor as chairman, a member of the Magistrat or administrative board designated by the mayor, the first mayors of the six next largest units represented in the union, the chairman of the circle committees within the area of the union, and eight lay members chosen by the council from among persons eligible to membership in the same. The term of these lay members is fixed at six years, but may be lengthened by act of the council.

The duties of the executive committee are extensive, including the preparation of measures for enactment by the council and their enforcement after passage, the supervision of the activities of the director of the union, the adoption of measures in regard to all corporate matters not entrusted to the council, and the collection of the quotas assigned to the constituent corporations.

The director of the union is chosen by the council for a period of not less than six nor more than twelve years and his appointment must be approved by the crown. He is the chief executive officer and is directly responsible for the administration of its affairs under supervision and control of the executive committee. He is charged with the duty of preparing the measures for enactment by the executive committee.

State supervision is exercised in the first instance by the province president of Brandenburg and in the higher instance by the minister of the interior acting with the ministers of public works and of finance. Certain acts of the union require for their validity the approval of the higher authorities and certain others may be brought into question before these authorities, and in some cases before the supreme administrative court.

Considering now the scope of powers granted to the union in the accomplishment of its purposes one sees that they are very extensive. In execution of its control over means of transportation the union may either purchase or build street railways within its limits and either operate them itself or lease them to private corporations. The constituent members may still continue to build, own and operate street railways as before, so long as such undertakings do not interfere with the purposes and interests of the union.

The second class of powers comprise the right to fix the building lines and other building regulations, not only in the exercise of the powers over thoroughfares, street railways and open park areas, but also in the interests of public health, especially as regards housing conditions. Here again the powers conferred on the union are not exclusive in character so long as the local regulations of the individual communities do not conflict with the measures or interests of the union. The cost of carrying out building regulations enacted by the union are shared by it with the local corporation that has to put them into effect.

The third class of functions, namely, the care for open playground and park areas may be entrusted by the union to the local communities. But here also the union must bear its share of the expense.

The revenues of the union are obtained by apportionment among the various constituent corporations in a manner specified in the law, and these local units in turn raise the necessary funds through the ordinary process of local taxation.

It is hoped by some students of the situation that the creation of this new corporation for specified purposes will lead to an increasing centralization of powers and ultimately to the complete union of all of these different areas under a full fledged municipal corporation embracing all the powers granted to any other local corporation.

Before closing this discussion of recent important events in Berlin it may not be out of place to mention the new street regulations of the city proper which went into effect this spring. The average American already feels very much in danger of being in a state of continual violation of local ordinances in a German city, but here are a few more "don'ts" to be observed in the future, in order to avoid arrest and fine.

> Don't walk three abreast and crowd your fellow pedestrians off into the street; don't stop on the sidewalk to chat with your friends and so interrupt traffic; don't swing your umbrella or cane or carry it in such a way that other people may fall over it or be poked with it; don't whistle, sing, shriek, shout, or talk in a loud voice on the street where others may be disturbed; don't litter up the streets with paper, remains of fruits, cigars or cigarettes; if you are a musician don't leave your doors or windows open when following your vocation or avocation; if you are in charge of a truck, drive so that there be no more noise than is absolutely necessary; and if you are a lady see that your skirt does not drag along the street, for that raises dust and is unhygienic.

If these regulations are enforced as rigidly as are most police orders in Prussian cities, it will no longer be necessary to leave the city for a rest cure.

Herman G. James.[6]

POLLING PLACES IN THE SCHOOLS

THE SCHOOL HOUSE—THE HOPE OF THE AMERICAN CITY

HOMER P. LEWIS, superintendent of schools at Worcester, Massachusetts, is a plump, quiet and capable man well over fifty. I asked him if public opinion in his city approved the use of schools for registration and polling places. He seemed very much puzzled and after considerable deliberation answered: "Why—er—there is no public opinion." He explained that he had been superintendent for seventeen years and that the schools had been used for election purposes when he first assumed his duties. "Worcester," said he, "has probably had polling places in schools for thirty years. We accept it as a matter of course."

There is no provision in the election law of Massachusetts authorizing the use of public buildings for such purposes. The aldermen in each city are required to designate the polling places and in Worcester they have whenever possible selected schools.

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[6] University of Texas; Author of *Principles of Prussian Administration.* See also his article on "Recent English Borough Elections," in the National Municipal Review, vol. ii, p. 271.

Of the forty-one polling places in use at the last election, thirteen were in schools, twelve in portable booths erected in vacant lots or in the highways, four in social halls, three in churches and only nine in rented stores. For party caucuses schools and police stations are used.

The superintendent of public buildings, George C. Halcott, estimates that the city saves about $75 a year on each polling place located in a public building.

So far as I could learn no one in Worcester is opposed to the use of the schools. Mrs. Nellie C. Thomas, a grammar school principal for twenty years, now teaching at the North High School, said: "I have never had the slightest trouble in all my experience. In this school the men and children enter by the same door. I have to be around on election day to oversee things, that is all."

Jane E. Millea, assistant principal at the Chandler Street School, said: "I have never heard any criticism of the use of these buildings. I have never had any trouble though I have had experience for ten years. Election usually comes when the schools are in session and I think it is helpful to the pupils, especially those in civil government classes. It gives them a practical object lesson and stimulates their interest. I always take my children down to watch the balloting. The day before we usually hold a mock election. The pupils are very much interested, even the girls, and insist that all the forms be strictly followed." It seems that in all of the schools the children are shown the election machinery in operation and I could not find a single principal or teacher who did not think the benefits to the community and the pupils far outweighed the slight trouble caused by the interference with school work. In a few of the schools the room is ordinarily used for manual training or physical exercise. When such is the case the class has to be passed for the day. In almost all of the Worcester schools the polling place or "ward room," as it is called, is in the basement.

The "ward rooms" in the Worcester schools are used not alone for elections but are rented to political parties for caucuses for $5 and to political leaders for rallies for $2.50 a night.

It is generally thought that the use of schools and other public buildings is dangerously new and untried. Most of the cities using public buildings have done so for the first time within the past two years. Los Angeles was among the first to try out the use of the schools and the progress of the experiment there has aroused much interest throughout the country. In the election of December, 1911, twenty-nine schools, a church and a branch library were designated for polling places. Success was so marked that the number of public buildings used has been increased and there is no thought of going back to the old system. The granting of suffrage to women has made it all the more important that light, commodious, dignified polling places be selected. To gage the success of the plan a circular letter was sent to the principals of the schools which were used, asking among other questions these:

Did its use interfere in any way with the regular school work?

Was there any disorder or disturbance due to such use?

Was the effect on school children good as a training in the duties of citizenship?

Aside from the large saving of expense to the city do you, from your own observation, consider the use of school buildings as polling places a beneficial move in elevating the conduct of our elections.

Of the fourteen answers but two reported any interference with school work. No disturbance was recorded excepting in one case and that was "slight." To the last two questions every principal answered "Yes." When it is considered that in most cases the hallways of the buildings were used it is remarkable that every principal should favor the plan.

The money saving is not the important thing. As Henry O. Wheeler, chairman of the committee on elections of the City Club of Los Angeles points out, the social benefit is invaluable. Here are the reasons given by Mr. Wheeler for the use of public buildings: Improved environment; more comfortable quarters for election officers; instruction in citizenship to pupils; enforcement of the idea of the sanctity of the ballot; easier accessibility to the voter; permanency of polling places.

In the election of June, 1911, every school house in Salt Lake City was used. This was in vacation time. No attempt has been made to use them when school is in session. The city and county building has been designated as the polling place for a number of districts.

Twenty school houses in Grand Rapids, Michigan, and several in Madison, Wisconsin, are successfully used.

Denver is waging a great fight for the complete socialization of its schools. As the result of much agitation the buildings have at last been thrown open for public meetings and it is expected that at the next election they will be used for election purposes.

Milwaukee has used its schools in elections for two years. Of the one hundred and forty-eight polling places at the last election thirty-five were in schools. In the opinion of Ralph Bowman, director of the Milwaukee bureau of municipal research: "The arrangement has been very satisfactory." Here, as in Worcester, basements are largely used. This is done so as not to interfere with the regular work of the schools. All new school buildings are provided with basement entrances so that they may be available for voting purposes.

Hull House, The Commons, and other settlement buildings in Chicago, have been used for voting at irregular intervals for several years. Recently Chicago has opened its schools for political meetings and the next step is the designation of these buildings for election purposes. When requested for his views as to whether or not the use of settlement buildings had worked satisfactorily and whether it did not point the way to the use of the schools, Graham Taylor, headworker of The Chicago Commons, replied:

> Everyone who has public interest and spirit in the matter knows that it would be better to use public school buildings, or if they can not be obtained, settlement buildings as polling places rather than barber shops, undertaker's shops or the back rooms of saloons. The only reason why these private places are used is the money in it for some one, or the better facility it affords for dirty work in politics.

What about the great city of New York with its palatial new buildings—perhaps the finest in the world! Agitation there has been for some years, but progress has been slight. George McAneny, president of the borough of Manhattan, looks favorably upon the proposition and has given it some thought, but his time has been too largely occupied with subways and other matters to push it to a conclusion. Raymond B. Fosdick, when commissioner of accounts, made an investigation into the methods of the board of elections in the fall of 1910 and again in the spring of 1911. He found that in many districts the polling places were so small that the watchers could not stand behind the guard rail that they were entirely unsuited to the purpose and in many instances were placed without regard to the convenience of the voters. Among the districts mentioned as the worst was the second assembly district in Brooklyn. I was then a resident of the second district and upon investigation found several of the stores and shops designated very small and dark. One was a club room and to reach it the voters had to go through the rear yard of a saloon. When visited, this room was used as a dog kennel. In behalf of the United Neighborhood Guild, a social settlement with which I was connected, I offered the use of two of its buildings which were very suitable for the purpose free to the city as an experiment which if successful would point the way to the use of schools and other public buildings. One of the election commissioners, J. Gratton-MacMahon, was heartily in favor of accepting the offer and thought that the other members would concur. Shortly afterwards the courts held that the mayor had to accept for commissioners of elections the candidates suggested by the political parties. Mayor Gaynor's appointees were removed and the men selected by the two machines came into office. The offer though renewed and urged from time to time, was never acted upon and never will be until public sentiment demands it. The election commissioners are now under a recent statute, appointed by the board of aldermen, but they are in fact named by the parties. Polling places are supposed to be designated by the board of elections, but they are in fact chosen by the leaders in each district. The district leader does not voluntarily part with patronage.

The people are coming to their own. No party, no politician, nor any group of politicians, can stand in the way of public sentiment. If we can interest the people of New York we shall have at least some of the schools designated for the next election.

The school is the hope of the American city because it will bring us together. A great city is a federation of neighborhoods with varied interests, often speaking different languages and professing diverse religions and ideals. Because these neighborhoods do not know themselves—much less the other sections—city government has been dubbed the one signal failure of our American democracy.

The public school building, the home of the town meeting and the spelling bee in New England, is in a large city the logical capitol of a neighborhood. Here the people should meet, first of all to get acquainted, then for enjoyment, to discuss civic, social and political issues—and to vote. Neighborhood conscience is what we need in our cities, and public school centers will develop it. That larger patriotism, the lack of which we so often bewail, lies deep in the heart of the people waiting only the magic touch which will give it life.

Louis Heaton Pink.

SOCIAL CENTERS[1]

MR. WARD is an evangelist, a crusader. America is full of evangelists, but most of them are preaching a negative doctrine of some kind. They stand for repression—at best for prevention. Mr. Ward, on the other hand, has lifted into national consciousness a wholly constructive and astonishingly fertile area. In society nothing is real until it has entered into public opinion, and in this sense—that he has altered, on behalf of the social center, the direction of public opinion—Mr. Ward may be said to have created the social center.

His present book is not less valuable from the fact that its introductory chapters—the philosophic chapters—challenge disagreement a hundred times. Mr. Ward has the defects of his qualities. He did not happen on the social center idea as an incident of a professional career. The social center idea seized on him—it obsessed him, in a way—it filled him with the transforming power of feeling and with a certain ruthlessness which feeling gives. But it is a fighting problem that Mr. Ward, from the beginning of his work in Rochester, confronted and still confronts.

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[1] Probably most readers would be better advised to read *The Social Center*, by Edward J. Ward. National Municipal League Series. New York: D. Appleton and Company. $1.50. Postpaid $1.62.—J. C.

There are three paramount feudalisms in America. One of these is the business feudalism, which largely influences the second, or political feudalism The third feudalism is the educational feudalism. To overcome any one of them would involve at least a peaceful revolution, and revolutions need impassioned leaders. Mr. Ward is a leader in the undoing of the second and third kinds of feudalism mentioned above. Is there any leader on the advance line of the struggle for educational and political emancipation, whose weapons are as wholly constructive as those of Mr. Ward?

Probably most readers would be well advised to read Mr. Ward's book backwards, or at least to begin with the chapter on "Beginnings in Rochester." It was of the Rochester social center work that Governor, now Justice Hughes, said: "You are buttressing the foundation of democracy."

Mr. Ward and his Rochester co-workers were thoroughly radical. They believed that the school should not only be used for educational extension during leisure hours, and for recreation as a substitute for dancehalls and moving picture shows, but frankly and fully as a political center. The plan required imagination and a certain recklessness. Free speech is guaranteed in the American constitution, but rather in the sense of toleration than of encouragement. Certainly, American practise has not been in the direction of encouraging free speech. The primary requisites of free speech have not been provided either in urban or rural districts. Neither parks nor public buildings nor ecclesiastical buildings have been made available for free speech. American streets are too narrow for the convenient holding of public meetings. Free speech has had to pay its own way, through the renting of private halls, and in large cities these private halls are oftener than not parts of saloon premises. But whatever might be the passive American attitude toward free speech, the tradition about separating school from politics is an active one. It is as vague as most other traditions of the kind which are inherited and never systematically analysed by the average citizen. In Rochester, the pioneers declared, once and for all, that the promotion of unlimited and organized free speech was the first duty of government. This was bad enough. It was a challenge to American prudence and to the political feudalism which is organized into parties based on loyalty and personal interest. It was a further challenge to the view which holds the school sacrosanct in an archaic sense. Incidentally, it was a challenge to the boss-ridden common council of Rochester, and after about two years the funds for keeping the schools open were withdrawn. Mr. Ward describes the Rochester beginnings in sufficient detail.

A further chapter, which has a bearing even wider than the social center, has been contributed to Mr. Ward's book by Dr. Edward C. Elliott of the University of Wisconsin. It is a discussion of "The Magnified School." Dr. Elliott states epigrammatically two of the three great reasons why social centers are right. His words may be quoted:

> (1) For several decades, competent judges . . . . have called attention to the extravagances and conspicuous lack of sensible economy that characterize all our public doings. The consciousness of the evils of the wastage of material things is being succeeded by a sharp realization of the evils of the wastage of spiritual things. This, as I understand it, is the underlying motive of the movement to expand the school into a center for community activity.

Dr. Elliott has in mind facts like these: in New York City $54,000,000 of the investment in public school buildings is wholly idle through the 40 per cent non-use of school properties. Throughout America the people's leisure-time is treated as idle ore—is given over to the exploitation of purely mercantile interests on which the people depend for their amusement life and in part for their political life.

Professor Elliott continues:

> (2) The original constitution of the public school was dominated by individualism. It was founded to meet the elementary needs of the child. The twentieth century public school has begun to discard this individualism for a broader principle of socialization. . . . . The decline of the influence of the family, the church, the workshop and of the major nationalizing traditions, has meant the increase of the domain of the school.

In other words, the economic changes of late generations have destroyed most of the old social bonds, have substituted economic for human forces, and have in a sense pulverized social life. The need of the age is the creation of new vital social bonds. Therefore, the social center.

The reader will then go back to Mr. Ward's first chapters. He will find the third great reason for the social center. Mr. Ward says:

> When the members of the electorate add to their common function of participating in the decision upon public questions, the function of consciously organizing to deliberate upon public questions, then the people become a reasoning, self-knowing being.

We can agree with Mr. Ward when he says: "This proposal goes to the heart of the whole American problem."

Mr. Ward develops his argument as follows. The ballot-box is the implicit social center of every neighborhood and of the nation. Public opinion registers itself only through the ballot. There is no direct manifestation of the public's soul except the ballot-box.

Representative bodies, from town boards to the federal congress, are sub-committees of the public. They act with delegated authority. But first they discuss in an orderly manner. They gather, for their own illumination, all facts which bear on the questions which they must decide. They do not meet in livery stables or butcher shops, as do the citizens in casting their ballot. They meet in dignified and adequate buildings.

If it is necessary for the sub-committees of the electorate to discuss before acting, then the electorate itself should discuss before acting. If the sub-committees are entitled to a dignified assemblage-place, where all interests may be represented, then he electorate is entitled to an adequate and dignified place of meeting.

The schoolhouse is the logical place of meeting of that great committee of society, the general electorate. First, it is the convenient place, for schoolhouses are everywhere and are now idle half the time. Second, it is the proper place, because the schoolhouse stands for the interest of society in its own formative elements, and the recognition by society of a responsibility for the future. The schoolhouse further represents the recognition by society that citizenship cannot be really formed save through the informing of the children with the important facts and values of the world. The school stands for universality and the rights of science and truth.

Assuming that the school is used as the ubiquitous, permanent gathering place of the electorate, then the electorate must organize to use the school. This organization must include everybody or at least welcome everybody. It must have a clerk, for purposes of record and of administrative convenience. This clerk is the servant of the social center, not the supervisor, director or boss. He takes orders, not gives them.

Mr. Ward, continuing to reason from convenience and from theory, then urges that the school principal is the logical peoples' clerk in the social center. But there should be an associate superintendent, the social center director of the general school system.

The four chapters in which Mr. Ward expounds this plan with great earnestness and positiveness, must needs convince any reader as to the main proposition. They exhibit at the same time some of the real excesses which the social center movement has taken on in more than one city and against which it needs to be safeguarded.

Briefly, the following are some of the exceptions which readers will take to Mr. Ward's argument.

Can or should the school principal be the social center secretary? There are limits to human endurance. Moreover, though the time may come when day school work will be wholly merged into the general community life, as William Morris depicts in his *News from Nowhere*, it is still true that today the efficient school principal is not likely to be a very tolerant or magnetic social center secretary. The school principal deals in a disciplinary and somewhat arbitrary way with children. In the social center the sense of authority, which seems to be necessary in the day school, is wholly out of place. A more reasonable plan would seem to be that there should be social center leaders, salaried by the community, giving their whole time to the center and to the neighborhood contact which it involves. A second point which involves not detail but principle, is Mr. Ward's insistence that public schools when opened as social centers should be used only by the single, all-inclusive social center organization. The fact is that there is every reason why labor unions, partisan political clubs, dancing societies, exclusive groups of all sorts, should be invited and urged to hold their meetings on public property. At present the people's organized life flows through the saloon, the private meeting hall, the dance hall, church and pool room. It is not simply a nondescript mass of humanity that flows through these special channels, but it is cohesive social groups. Unless the social center invites these groups as groups, it will not draw to itself the social life of the people or, save very partially, the political life. Jeffersonian democracy, when logically carried out, may indeed deny to special classes and groups the right to exist, and Mr. Ward is politically (though not economically) a Jeffersonian. But as a fact of social science, and of universal experience, people tend to organize into classes, groups and clubs, and such special groups have been one of the main dynamic agencies of history. It is probable that group and club life has never been as variegated and universal as it is in America today. If the social center movement refuses to face this patent social fact, and clings to a mere logical carrying out of absolute democracy, then the social center idea cannot be generally effected save at great expense to the taxpayers, nor will it reach the mass of the people in their vital relations.

No one will dispute Mr. Ward's ultimate ideal, in insisting that nothing shall go on in social centers except that which everybody wants and approves. But a society where the majority rules in this exhaustive sense cannot be achieved save through ages of evolution. In America the political interest has been a relatively superficial one until very recently and democracy has not sunk very deep. The public school should invite all reputable groups and see that they shall give each other elbow-room, and should then strive to develop within itself certain focal points of universal interest, around which all the groups can unite.

This conception of the social center makes the whole problem more complex and will involve slower progress than would be possible if Mr. Ward's view—the theory of immediate absolute democracy—were true to the facts of life. But neither absolute logic nor enthusiasm will enable the social center movement to get around facts.

A third element in Mr. Ward's argument, which will not command general agreement, is his assumption that the social center, once established on a democratic basis, will automatically keep itself on a democratic basis. This is not the history of democracy. It is an unsolved part of the social center question, as to how the center can be locally self-governed, with unlimited freedom of action by the majority, and yet the tyranny of the majority be avoided. Because the problem is not yet solved, it may be expected that most cities and states will not give unlimited freedom to the social center movement except as the movement works out methods and traditions which will be a guarantee of fairness to the social center minorities.

The reviewer would be sorry to have it understood that he regards these suggestions as in any sense major criticisms of Mr. Ward's theory. In emphasizing the political element and the element of local self-government, Mr. Ward does a primary service to the social center movement and indeed to the general school movement of the country.

The other chapters in Mr. Ward's book are: "The Branch Public Library" contributed by Dr. Charles E. McLennigan, public Librarian of Milwaukee; "The Public Art Gallery," a description by William Dudley Foulke of the significant work which has been done in Richmond, Indiana; "Music Center," contributed by Prof. Arnold Dresden; "The Festival Center," contributed by E. S. Martin; "The Motion Picture Theater," contributed by John Collier; "The Recreation Center," contributed by Clarence A. Perry and Edward A. Stitt; "The Employment Center," contributed by Mrs. Annie L. Diggs; "The Local University Center," contributed by Dean Louis E. Reber, of Wisconsin University; "The Social Center in the Rural Community," contributed by Charles W. Holman, of Texas; "The Public Health Office," contributed by Mr. Geo. B. Young, commissioner of health of Chicago.

These papers were prepared for the Buffalo Convention of the National Municipal League in 1911, and are made timely by introductory words written by Mr. Ward. Several of these papers are rich in fact and the chapters on the rural social center and the school as a public health office are of acute value.

Mr. Ward's book is an important chapter in the movement which may be seen, by the Americans of tomorrow, as co-equal in national meaning with the movement for the conservation of natural resources.

JOHN COLLIER.[2]

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[2] Of The People's Institute; author of papers on "Leisure Time: A Problem of Conservation," "Motion Pictures and Public Education," "Industrial Education in the Metropolis."

NEWTON D. BAKER'S ADMINISTRATION AS MAYOR OF CLEVELAND AND ITS ACCOMPLISHMENTS

NEWTON D. BAKER became mayor of Cleveland a year and a half ago. The majority vote by which he was elected was large, and the votes carried with them an expression of personal liking and esteem that few candidates for public offices are honored with.

Mr. Baker was handicapped when he took office by a rather unusual situation. Tom. L. Johnson had left the mayor's office but two years before, following his defeat by Herman Baehr. Whatever one may think of Tom Johnson, he will at least be compelled to admit that he was a remarkable man. His personality permeated his administration for the many years he was at the head of municipal affairs in Cleveland.

Herman Baehr, good type of substantial German citizen, gave Cleveland just such an administration as might have been expected from the man. It was wholly honest, fairly efficient, fairly progressive. Some good things were done. But Cleveland under Tom Johnson had become a city awake. The most advanced civic and social thought was discussed among all classes as they might discuss a baseball game. It was, therefore, not strange that two years of the type of administration given by Mr. Baehr was enough. Beyond doubt, the people who had repudiated Tom Johnson at the polls would have called him back; but Tom Johnson was dead.

To Newton D. Baker they turned as the ablest member and closest associate in the Johnson cabinet. His election meant that he was expected to restore to the people somewhat the same attitude and viewpoint in civic affairs that they had come to expect from the great leader who was gone. At the same time they looked to Mr. Baker for accomplishment along certain material lines which had been to a degree neglected in the heat of Mr. Johnson's battle with the street railway company over the 3-cent fare issue. In a word Cleveland wanted a mayor who had ideals and who would do something. What Mr. Baker has been able to do in both respects is the verdict as to the success or failure of his administration. Coming, as he did, at a time when the demand for a high type of leadership was accentuated by two years of ordinary conduct of municipal affairs, Mr. Baker's task has been the more difficult.

An educated community demands certain civic ideals, but any community demands creature comforts. In the modern municipality adequate street car transportation, lighting, water supply, municipal buildings, street cleaning, garbage collection, policing, care of paupers and indigent and a hundred and one other items of service to the community must become one of the chief tasks of any administration. It is therefore proper to consider what Newton D. Baker's administration has done in Cleveland as affecting these matters.

In the street railroad situation, always a moot matter in Cleveland, a great deal has been accomplished. The elimination of alternate stops necessitated by the irregularity of Cleveland's streets and the spacing of the streets as railway stops, has made possible a much faster schedule of service. A new power contract has been authorized and 250 new cars, 200 of them trailers, have been purchased. An additional 100 trailers have been ordered, making 300 in all. This has practically doubled the carrying capacity of the system, while increasing the operating charge but 60 per cent. The building of several down town loops is now in progress which will make it possible to avoid sending all cars through the public square, thus reducing congestion, shortening the miles to be traveled by about two-thirds of the cars on the system, saving in operation and increasing both the convenience and rapidity of service.

Work on the new city hall has been resumed. It was begun under the Baehr administration. When Mayor Baker took office he found the plans had grown until the building promised to cost $4,000,000 or $5,000,000 instead of the limit of $2,600,000 set by the city. Mayor Baker caused a restudy to be made of several features of the matter. The mayor now has the assurance of the Builders' Exchange which had a committee investigate and of the Thompson-Starrett Company which made an independent investigation, that the building will not cost in excess of $2,600,000. There has been some criticism of the Baker administration because of the delay in the city hall project, but Mr. Baker feels that the saving of two or three millions of dollars to the city has been worth all the criticism. Work is now in progress on the building and bids fair to proceed with expedition.

One of Cleveland's greatest needs is a union railway station. The present structure, built generations ago, is the butt of jokes wherever Cleveland is mentioned, and properly so. Judged by the traffic it handles it is perhaps the worst station in the world. Plans for a new one have been in contemplation for some time, but Mayor Baker's predecessor had to break off negotiations with the railroads because the city of Cleveland did not have a fee simple title to the land upon which the new station was to stand. A recent decision of the state supreme court has cleared up the trouble except for a few minor details. Mayor Baker has resumed negotiations with the railroads with the result that the prospects for a new union station in Cleveland were never as bright as now.

The lake passenger business is one of the important transportation features of Cleveland. For years the lake passenger boats, constantly increasing in size, have been winding their way to wharves along the crooked and dirty Cuyahoga River. Efforts have been made repeatedly to get these boats out of the river and to wharves along the lake front, thus giving more room for freight boat traffic in the river and affording a more attractive approach to the city. The injunction, a device which has done much to check Cleveland's growth, was used in this case as well. Final court action has been taken, however, with the result that the city and the boat companies have come together and great passenger and package freight wharves are to be built in the outer harbor at once.

Under Mayor Baker the department of public safety has been able to add one hundred men to the police force, to modernize the fire department with motor drawn engines and motor drawn equipment carriages, to increase the number of men in the fire department and to add to the number of companies, and to establish "flying squadrons" which having motor-equipped apparatus entirely are able to go speedily to the relief of individual companies. The police department has been reorganized which, it is believed, will add materially to the efficiency of the department. Mayor Baker took prompt action against Chief of Police Fred Kohler, whose "golden rule" policy had made him known throughout the country, and Kohler's trial and removal from office on the charge of conduct unbecoming an officer immediately followed.

At Warrensville farms, Cleveland's colony for its needy, ill and delinquent, there has been completed under Mayor Baker's administration enough of a proposed tuberculosis sanitarium to care for 180 patients and another wing is now under construction. Discussing this, together with the general work at Warrensville, Mayor Baker says:

> This sanitarium is now perhaps the most beautifully located, the best equipped, and the most modern tuberculosis sanitarium in the country. We have at Warrensville also substantially completed the erection of two buildings for male and female insane patients respectively, and a main administration building, all of which are designed as parts of the original colony group. When they are completed the removal of insane patients into buildings of their own will greatly relieve the condition and make it possible for us to care for a greater portion of our indigent and helpless population. At the workhouse we have in process of construction as a separate wing of the main correction square group a department for women prisoners.
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> We have also taken city water out to the Warrensville group and have established central heating and lighting facilities, so that economy in the distribution of electric light and power and steam heat and hot water is secured. At this place we have also bought a farm of 37 acres and are remodeling a farm house as an experiment station for the development of an institution for girls similar to the Boys Home at Hudson. Our beginning there will be largely experimental and until we have determined just the way in which the city can be most helpful in solving the problems of the dependent and neglected girl children, we will not undertake the erection of a permanent building.

The municipal light plant which was the main issue at the time of Mayor Baker's election, depends for its successful construction upon the ability of the city to market bonds. An amendment to the state constitution imposes grave difficulties upon all the cities of Ohio in selling their bonds and another amendment makes these bonds taxable. The municipal bond market of the state is accordingly depressed and every city in the state is having difficulty in disposing of its bonds. Cleveland authorized $2,000-000 bonds of the municipal light project of which $500,000 have been sold. With this money excavation for the building has been made. In the meantime, three large turbo-generators are under contract, a good deal of conduit work has been laid and some transforming stations have been established in various parts of the city. Cleveland already has a municipal light plant in the part of the city known as Brooklyn. Pending the completion of the new plant, additional generators have been installed in the old Division Street pumping station, practically doubling the capacity of the Brooklyn plant.

A new activity undertaken by the Baker administration is the establishing of a central heating plant to furnish steam heat within a certain radius. The trial station has given good satisfaction and it is probable that others will be established, giving much greater convenience and materially reducing the smoke nuisance. Of this undertaking the mayor says: "This in my judgment is the most hopeful attack that has been made in the city since I can remember."

The Baker administration has completed the West Side market house and turned it over to the public use. It is perhaps the most beautiful market in the country. Under Mayor Baker a building has been erected and machinery installed for an electric driven high pressure fire service by which the entire downtown section of the city willl be reached with a special system of pipes of large capacity, carrying water at very high pressure, pumped by electrically-driven centrifugal pumps. This is expected to reduce the insurance rate and decrease the conflagration risk of the entire business section of the city. The plant is expected to be in operation by midsummer.

Under Mayor Baker the city has been active in recreational matters. It has established a school for playground instructors with an attendance of three hundred and more. It is hoped to make the playground work more scientific, better organized and more effective than heretofore.

The city has opened two municipal dance halls at Edgewater park and Woodland Hills park at which last year three cents was charged for a five-minute dance, in competition with the private dance halls where five cents was charged for a three-minute dance. Both these places were supervised carefully by a large number of attendants, excellent music was supplied, good order maintained and the young people of the city crowded them all last summer. Both institutions were more than self-supporting.

The city has expanded its bath house facilities, though they still are inadequate. It has done away with the hiring of impromptu bands for park concerts and has substituted a municipal orchestra under the direction of a trained musician. It is the hope that this group can ultimately become the nucleus of an established municipal orchestra which will continue its activities throughout the winter season by giving symphony concerts at popular prices.

The elimination of grade crossings has progressed rapidly under Mayor Baker. The engineering department of the city also has been busy recasting the entire method of sewage disposal of the city. Acting under an expert report from a group of engineers some fifteen years ago, the plan was made of collecting all of the sewage of the city, sanitary and drainage water, into a great interceptor, paralleling the lake shore and emptying into Lake Erie ten miles east of the public square. The contamination of the waters of the lake by this method became manifest, and after a restudy of the problem it was determined to install sewage disposal plants, one at the mouth of the interceptor, one on the west side of the river and one far back in the Cuyahoga Valley, reversing the flow in the west side branch of the interceptor and in the river lateral, so as to carry the sewage into disposal plants where the solid matter could be extracted and sterilized and the waters neutralized before being emptied into river and lake. The plan has so far been carried forward that the city has acquired the land for the disposal plants and farms and is conducting a series of experiments with all known methods of sewage purification to determine which one is best adapted to the raw sewage output with which the city has to deal.

The city plans this year to pave thirty-five miles of streets. The largest number ever paved in any preceding year was twenty-seven. It has enlarged and modernized its garbage plant. Ash and waste paper collections have been systematized and those in charge of this work assert it is being done more efficiently than ever before.

It would be wholly unfair to give the impression that the Baker administration has escaped criticism. There is and has been a healthful amount of it. The administration is charged with delay in a number of important projects. Complaint is made of the condition of the streets, and the question of the water supply was for a time agitated as a matter in which the administration had been derelict. The administration blames litigation for most of the delays charged against it. It points to the state tax limit as a reason for inability to repair streets more rapidly. It believes the sewage disposal plans now under way and a system of filtration will solve the water problem.

Not the least of the service done his city by Mayor Baker is his tireless effort to bring the government to the people. Gifted far beyond the ordinary man as a public speaker, he speaks whenever and wherever there is an opportunity to discuss municipal problems. The demands on the time and energy of Mr. Baker in this respect alone are enormous. Speaking of this phase of his activity, Mayor Baker says:

> I have lent a large portion of my time and a great deal of my enthusiastic interest to the discussion of municipal problems before audiences of every kind, character and description, throughout the entire city, with the thought of making Cleveland's government a popular government in the sense that its people would have an understanding of the city problems and would be able to reflect their informed will into the activities of the city government.

As a teacher of civic things Mr. Baker has been eminently successful. In this respect he has exceedingly ably supplemented and carried further the work begun by Tom Johnson. There is perhaps no city of its rank in the United States whose people have the same clear grasp and understanding of civic and social affairs as do those of Cleveland.

In another work, also, has Mr. Baker been of great assistance to his community. The city is drafting a new charter by a commission of which Mayor Baker was elected a member and over which he presides. The charter is practically completed at the time of writing this article and is a document rich in the most progressive ideas in social and civic thought. Mayor Baker is responsible for many of the most advanced ideas in this new constitution for the city of Cleveland. It is quite such a constitution as one might expect in the city which so long had Tom L. Johnson for its leader in the past and which saw fit to elect as its mayor a year and a half ago Mr. Johnson's ablest associate and closest friend.

Schooled by his association with Tom Johnson, Newton Baker has gone on and beyond it. He is a man of clear vision and wide vision who sees his city as something more than streets and buildings. Though the time of his administration has been but a few months more than a year and great doings are seldom done in such a narrow space, he has demonstrated that he couples the gift of accomplishment with that of vision. It is wholly improbable that the community which Tom Johnson desired to be a city set upon a hill will be hidden while Newton D. Baker is its chief executive.

E. C. Hopwood.[1]

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[1] Managing editor of the Cleveland *Plain Dealer*.

THE INITIATIVE, REFERENDUM AND RECALL IN SAN FRANCISCO

THE voters of San Francisco had an opportunity on April 22 to use in one election these three weapons of popular rule.

The initiative was used to place before the voters an ordinance reducing telephone rates for the coming fiscal year. It was proposed under the name of a Telephone Users' Organization, but it was charged during the campaign that the organization consisted of one man who had circulated the petition as a matter of private enterprise, and had entered into contracts that he was to receive one-half of the amount saved in telephone rates during the coming fiscal year. The estimated reduction for the entire city was placed by the Telephone Users' Organization at $600,000 a year; the estimate of the city authorities was considerably less. In the meantime the supervisors, in pursuance of law, fixed the rates for the coming year, making a considerable reduction, estimated at a total of $255,000. An attempt was made by the telephone company to prevent the submission of the initiative ordinance, and a temporary injunction was issued. It was dissolved, however, on the ground that the legality of an ordinance fixing rates initiated by petition and passed by the popular vote could not be attacked by such proceedings, and that the election must be held. The opposition to the ordinance came from two sources—the telephone company alleging that the rates proposed were unjust, and from the city authorities and some of the newspapers objecting to commercialization of the initiative. The ordinance, however, was carried by a small majority.

On petition of 5 per cent of the voters an ordinance that had been passed by the supervisors in settlement of a dispute between the city and the street railway company was referred to the voters and endorsed by a large majority.

The dispute originated in the attempt of the "United Railroads" to monopolize transportation on lower Market Street, the main thoroughfare of the city.

Under the provisions of the early railroad franchises granted in 1879, it was agreed that no more than two lines should be allowed to run on Market Street. The old Market Street railroad was at that time granted a franchise to run a double track in the center of the street, and the Sutter Street Railroad Company was permitted to run two outer tracks from the junction of Sutter Street with Market down to the ferry terminals, which handle the great trans-bay traffic in and out of the city. When the "United Railroads" in 1902 took over most of the street railroad companies in the city, it permitted the franchise of the Sutter Street railroad on lower Market Street to remain in the old company for the purpose of claiming that two lines were running on the street, and consequently no other could be allowed to operate on that thoroughfare.

Four years ago the city attacked this contention on the ground that by division of the franchises and the giving of merely nominal service on the lower Market Street outer tracks, the franchise had been forfeited. A judgment of forfeiture in favor of the city was given last year in the trial court and appealed.

With the completion of the first section of the municipal railroad on Geary Street, the city wished to build and operate the road from the junction of Geary and Market Streets to the ferries in order to secure a part of this rich traffic. The rights of the "United Railroads" in dispute served to block the municipal road until a final decision should be had. An agreement was therefore drawn up between the city authorities on one side, and the "United Railroads" on the other, by which the city should have the right to run its cars from Geary and Market Streets to the ferries, and that the city on its side should permit the Sutter Street cars to run to the ferries by electric power (the original franchise had given the privilege of operating by horse or mule power and the company had not been able to secure the right to use electric power). Another part of the agreement arranged for transfer privileges between the municipal road on Geary Street and four cross town lines of the "United Railroads," at Divisadero, Fillmore, Larkin and Kearny Streets.

The referendum was invoked by the Public Ownership Association, the ground alleged being that the city had the right already to run its cars to the ferries without any such agreement, and that the settlement was in effect the grant of a franchise to the Sutter Street Railroad Company to use the lower Market Street tracks until 1929 without exacting any compensation therefor. The agreement, however, was ratified by the voters.

Under the San Francisco charter any elected official may be recalled by petition of 10 per cent of the electors, and an election must then be held in which the incumbent is a candidate without any action on his part, and any other candidate may be nominated by filing a certificate of nomination accompanied by the affidavits of not less than ten nor more than twenty sponsors.

Under this provision a movement was initiated to recall Police Judge Charles L. Weller on the following stated grounds:

> That said Charles L. Weller has since the first day of January, 1912, in his administration of said office, shown himself to be incompetent and unfit for the position he occupies:
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> That he has since the first day of January, 1912, frequently abused his judicial power by extending undue and unreasonable leniency to persons charged with the commission of heinous and vicious offenses, all of which

has been subversive of public morals, and that the continuance in said office of said Charles L. Weller is a menace to the moral well-being of said city and county.

The particular occasion for the movement was a reduction of bail from $3000 to $1000 in the case of a chauffeur arrested for criminal assault on two young women. When the case was called for trial the accused had absconded, and much indignation was aroused. A number of organizations of women took up the case, and, after listening to Judge Weller's defense, circulated petitions for his recall. Judge Weller made his defense on the ground of his good character, and the fact that "bail in like amounts in similar cases have been fixed for years in the superior and police courts."

Only one candidate appeared against him. The recall was successful by a small majority. The election returns were as follows:

Wiley F. Crist, candidate of Recall League	30,751
Charles L. Weller, incumbent recalled	29,927
Crist's majority	824

Referendum. Proposition No. 1. "Shall the settlement ordinance be approved?"

Yes	38,086
No	21,861
Majority	16,225

Initiative. Proposition No. 2. "Ordinance fixing and establishing rates to be paid for telephone service."

For	30,710
Against	27,801
Majority	2,909

The total vote cast was 62,876 out of a registration of about 125,000.

The fact that this recall campaign was initiated largely by the women and their activity in carrying it on brought out a vote among the women of 16,967, the number of women registered and entitled to vote being 46,060.

E. A. Walcott.[1]

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[1] Executive Secretary, Commonwealth Club of San Francisco.

NOTES AND EVENTS

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I. GOVERNMENT AND ADMINISTRATION

The Commission Government Movement.—*The New York "Sun" on commission government.* A significant event in the life of any constructive movement occurs when the New York *Sun* ceases to harp upon it as an object of ridicule. Commission government has now reached that stage, as is demonstrated by the *Sun's* long editorial of March 21, the burden of which is that if commission government is a thing which gets results, why not have it? The following paragraph contains the gist of the argument:

> The knot of the matter is to get a competent, upright, civilized city government. Why blink and flinch at a mere word of unhappy connotation and an evil past? If 'commission' government can do the job, why not have it? The people rule just the same whether they elect three men or one man or a hundred men. If they choose to hand over their power to three commissioners, to say, 'Here, we will elect you and we shall require of you as our delegates a city government absolutely honest, reasonably efficient, with no man or woman on the city payroll for political or personal reasons, a city government by experts and men of business, and if we don't get it out you go,' are they not justified until experience has shown the contrary?

Recent adoptions. Since the publication of the last issue of the National Municipal Review, commission government has made rapid and important advances, of which perhaps the most notable is the adoption of the plan by the two large cities of Portland, Ore., and Jersey City. Other smaller communities which have adopted the plan during this period are Millville and Bordenton, N. J.; Mason City, Iowa; Hickory, Morganton, and Raleigh, N. C.; Traverse City and Battle Creek, Mich.; Fargo, N. D.; Springfield, Tenn., and Grafton, W. Va.

General Laws. *Indiana.* The Indiana business plan of city government outlined in our last issue has gone down to defeat. In the pamphlet entitled "What Ails Us," Theodore F. Thieme of Fort Wayne, the author of the plan, reviews the political situation for the last three years as regards the effort to secure the adoption of this plan.

Concerning the regular commission government bill a correspondent writes:

> Our last legislature, especially the house, was full of politicians and all of them optimists, and all knew, that for many years to come, every city official in the state, as well as county and state officials, were to be Democrats, and hence they would do nothing that might by any happening, give a chance for a Republican to be elected to office; and as a Republican might slip in if the commission form of government be enacted, or at least some one might get an office when he was not beholden to the Democratic party, therefore, they would have none of that kind of legislation.[1]

Minnesota. The bill, permitting cities to adopt the city manager plan passed the lower house, but was not reported out in the senate.

Missouri. The first of two commission government bills passed at this year's session of the legislature is intended for the benefit of Joplin and

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[1] See National Municipal Review, vol. ii, p. 284.

Springfield, and provides that all the cities of the third class having a population of more than 30,000 and less than 75,000 shall hold an election on October 7 on the question of adopting the act. This law provides the commission plan in its usual form, but also contains one or two rather unique features, as for example, the method of nomination by deposit, by which any voter instead of filing a petition, may make a deposit of $10 and thereby become a candidate at the primaries. The statement of the corporate powers of the cities is unusually detailed and complete. A second statute applies to cities of the third class, but is primarily for the benefit of the smaller communities.

New York. The so-called Cullen-Levy bill, aimed to give larger corporate powers to the cities, without appeal to the legislature to pass special acts amendatory of and supplementary to the various city charters, received the unanimous support of the Democratic organization and was passed in both houses and signed by the governor. This law originated with the Municipal Government Association and was intended to put an end to the great volume of special city legislation. On the strength of it Governor Sulzer has already vetoed a number of special local city bills. The effect of the law however, because of its general form, is problematical until it has been passed upon by the courts. The other bills supported by the Association[1] including the one offering an option among six simplified forms of organization, received little or no support.

Ohio. The Smith bill, providing for three optional forms of simplified government (the commission plan, the city manager plan and the federal plan) passed during the last days of the legislative session, in April. The non-partisan elections feature was eliminated and a number of other changes in the original draft were made.

Pennsylvania. The Clark bill providing for the commission form of government for all third class cities without a local referendum for its adoption seems at the present time, to be in a fair way of becoming law. The necessary percentage of petitioners under the initiative has been raised from ten to twenty per cent and the petitioners must register with and be identified by the clerk of the courts in signing the papers.

This measure would affect every city in Pennsylvania except Philadelphia, Pittsburgh and Scranton. It provides for a commission of five and an elective auditor but not for the recall.[2]

Utah. Efforts to amend the commission government law at this year's session of the legislature failed in every instance.

Portland, Ore. The friends of commission government won their long fight by the adoption of a new commission government charter on May 3, after a bitter newspaper controversy. In general, the charter conforms to the typical commission government scheme with the exception that the mayor is required to make the designation of members of the council to the various departments. The opponents of commission government professed to see in this arrangement a serious departure from commission government principles and made much of the idea that under it the mayor of the city would become a practical czar or dictator. But while it is not a usual feature of commission government, it is not by any means unique and follows the provisions of the laws under which Columbia, S. C., and several southern cities operate. The charter provides for a system of preferential voting, another feature which was a subject of attack. A commendable provision of the charter is the one which requires the council to enact an administrative code.

The procedure provided for the annual audit is interesting. For this occasion the clearing house association will be invited to submit a list of qualified public accountants from which the council must choose one to conduct the examination of the city's financial affairs.

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[1] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. ii, p. 285.

[2] The bill has passed both houses and is in the hands of the governor, who it is expected will approve.—C. R. W.

Complete copies of the charter in pamphlet form were sent to every voter in the city.

The Los Angeles Charter Amendments. The election in Los Angeles on March 24 resulted in the adoption of a number of important amendments. The first two amendments, relating to the acquisition of public utilities and the granting of franchises were passed, as was the amendment permitting the city to exercise all corporate powers exercised by any municipal corporation in the state of California. By the terms of the fifth amendment, after the first Monday in July, all the functions of the government of the city are to be divided into nine divisions and each member of the council is to be a committeeman for such division. The functions of the several councilmen under this amendment are not those of administrative supervision, but simply of investigation. Amendment number six increases the salaries of the elective officers. Proportional representation was voted down, but the ninth amendment, relating to the appointment of a harbor commission was adopted instead of a counter amendment providing for an elective board. Amendments number twelve and thirteen provide respectively for the firemen's and policemen's pension fund.

The City Manager Plan. The plan of municipal government which is being tried out in Sumter, S. C., not only continues to be watched with greatest interest throughout the country, but has been already emulated by two other southern cities, Hickory and Morganton, N. C. The former, a city of 3,716 inhabitants, adopted the plan on March 17. The people in Morganton liked the Hickory charter so well that they went to the legislature and had it enacted almost *verbatim* as their own. This town has a population of 2,712.

The charter revision commissions in Elyria and Youngstown, O., have reported "city manager" charters and the Dayton commission elected on May 20 is pledged to submit a charter providing that form.

In the Wisconsin Legislature there has recently been introduced by Representative Estabrook a city manager bill prepared some months ago by Dr. Ford H. MacGregor, of the University of Wisconsin. This bill is, in some ways, the most advanced of any on this subject thus far prepared. The specific provision that applications for the position of city manager shall be secured by advertisement is a radical departure, although the commissioners in Sumter advertised on their own initiative.

H. S. Gilbertson.

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Charter-Making in Ohio.—Ohio cities are furnishing interesting illustrations of the desirability of granting to municipalities the right to frame their own charters, and to legislate for themselves in strictly local matters. Eleven cities in the state have chosen commissions to frame home rule charters, and a number of others are considering the question. Canton, Akron and Salem are favorable to the commission form of government; Dayton, Elyria and Lakewood indicate a preference for the city manager type; the commission in Columbus has just begun its work; Youngstown and Cleveland have practically completed their charters.

Cleveland's commission has been working since February 4. The draft of the charter was mailed to every voter, on June 1. The election will be held July 1. The commission, headed by Mayor Newton D. Baker, has held on the average of five meetings a week since it began its sessions in February.

Some of the more important features of the new charter are:

a. Non-partisan elections with primaries entirely eliminated; candidates will be nominated by petition only.

b. A preferential system of voting with first, second and other choices.

c. The short ballot principle has been adopted. The only elective officers will be the mayor and the council.

d. Elective officials are subject to recall upon petition signed by 15,000 electors, in case of officials elected at large, and 600 in case of officials elected from wards.

e. The charter provides for a council of twenty-six members elected from wards for a term of two years. Its functions are limited strictly to legislation. The charter contains explicit provisions prohibiting members of the council from having any part in administration.

f. An ordinance may be placed before the council by initiative petition, signed by 5,000 electors. If not passed by the council 5,000 additional signatures will compel its submission to the people at a special election.

g. The mayor's term is two years. He is given the power to appoint the directors of departments. He and the directors will have seats in the council with the right to take part in the discussion but without the right to vote.

h. Six departments are established, namely: law, public service, public welfare, public safety, finance, and public utilities. Under each of these departments are established from three to five divisions. The council is given the power to create, discontinue, rearrange or abolish departments and divisions and to assign appropriate functions to each of them.

i. A bureau of information and public reference is created, to be under the direction of a commissioner who will have charge of all city printing, reports, statistics and the editing of a city Record and the collection of municipal information.

j. Advisory boards, composed of unsalaried experts and citizens interested in the subject, are provided for divisions in which the director of the department thinks it would be advisable to have the services of such boards.

k. A city plan commission, with very broad powers, will have control of the works of art, the plan, design and location of buildings, street fixtures, etc., and also have the power to frame comprehensive plans for the future development of the city.

l. A civil service commission of three members to be appointed by the mayor for a term of six years. The commission will have authority not only to see that officers and employees are appointed on the basis of merit and fitness, but also will keep a record of their efficiency in the service.

As far as can be ascertained at the present time there is practically no doubt but that the charter will be adopted by the people. The leading newspapers have already indicated that they will give the charter their full support. Considerable opposition has been aroused over the elimination of party primaries, and the adoption of the preferential system of voting, but this opposition is limited in the main to the party leaders and workers. Cleveland will be the first city in Ohio to adopt a home rule charter.

Supreme court decision. The recent decision of the supreme court in the Toledo case will tend to increase the activity of Ohio cities in the direction of framing and adopting their own charters. The case was the first real test of the home rule amendment. Mayor Whitlock of Toledo had an ordinance passed appropriating money to establish a municipal moving picture theatre. It was intended to test the home rule provisions. The city auditor refused to issue the necessary warrants for the appropriation. A friendly suit was begun and carried to the highest court in the state. The decision has been awaited with considerable interest and anxiety by the advocates of home rule in the state.

The court held, in brief, that the home rule amendment, so far as it granted to cities which are organized under the present municipal code the right to legislate for themselves in strictly local matters, is not self-executing; that for such cities the legislature must first enumerate the powers which such cities may exercise. But the court held clearly that a city, when it frames its own charter or adopts one of the optional charters enacted into law by the legislature, can then legislate for itself in local matters.

The decision was disappointing to advocates of home rule and yet it does not prohibit the exercise of the right of home rule to the cities which go to the trouble of framing their own charters.

MAYO FESLER.[1]

✣

Ohio Cities.—*Dayton.* John H. Patterson, the president of the National Cash Register Company, for years a member of the National Municipal League was elected a charter commissioner of Dayton and subsequently chairman of the commission. His victory foreshadows the recommendation of the commission form of government. One of the features of the campaign leading up to the election was the full page advertisements discussing the merits of commission government from both sides.

Columbus. Martin A. Gemünder was elected to the charter commission, receiving the highest vote. He was subsequently elected chairman.[2]

The *Canton* commission began work early in March and finished April 26. The proposed charter provides for a commission of five members, one of whom shall be designated by his colleagues as president. *Akron* elected a charter commission on April 1. There is a strong sentiment in this city in favor of commission government.

On May 12 charter commissions were convened in Elyria, Middletown, Norwood and Lakewood. The commissioners of the latter city, which is a suburb of Cleveland with a population of 17,000, have decided in favor of the city manager plan. In Toledo a council of nine members elected at large but nominated from wards has been decided upon.

✣

Home Rule for New Haven.—The most liberal municipal legislation which the writer has ever known was granted to New Haven by the Connecticut legislature in May in the so-called home rule bill, drafted by William S. Pardee, a member of the house from New Haven. It won its way to the favor of the committee on cities and boroughs, and finally the house and senate, because of the numerous bills introduced into the legislature to amend the existing charter. Among these bills was one asking for a commission form of government. All of these bills, some progressive and some reactionary, were urged with insistence by large bodies of citizens from New Haven and after hearings on these numerous bills the committee decided that the wisest and safest way was to report most of them adversely and grant to New Haven the right to amend and change its own charter. The bill is entitled, "Conferring upon the freemen of New Haven the right to amend the charter of the City of New Haven." The bill covers only five pages, but it is certainly very sweeping in the privileges which it grants to the city.

New Haven has for several years been governed by a single legislative board, consisting of twenty-one members, and the law grants to this board of aldermen, or such legislative body as may succeed them, the right to change the charter, which change shall be referred to the electors of the city at a special or regular municipal election, and when approved by them shall become a part of the charter of the city.

The bill further provides that twenty per cent of the electors themselves may petition for a change in the charter, and that change shall be submitted to the electors, and if approved becomes a part of the charter. Then follows in the bill the subjects under which amendments may be drafted, and they include nearly all of the work of the city and would certainly allow the city to adopt a commission form of government if it chose. It is quite fitting that New Haven should lead in advanced municipal government, for it has always been the leader among the New England cities in that line of work. New Haven was granted the first city charter in New England, but was followed closely by four other cities in

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[1] Secretary Cleveland Civic League and of the charter commission.

[2] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. i, p. 170.

Connecticut. The next city to receive a charter was Boston, forty-eight years later, followed by Providence and then other New England cities.

Since the first charter of 1784, New Haven has lived under six charters, each one of which has been a little more liberal than the one preceding, and a study of the progress of the city government is decidedly interesting. Many people who are interested in municipal government in New Haven hope to see features of the commission form of government incorporated into the charter, and the city run upon good business principles, but the whole question is now in the hands of the electors of the city, and the experiment must be met and tried out by the people who live under the government and pay the bills for its management. Since the passage of this bill for New Haven, a sentiment has developed for similar privileges for all the cities of the state, and it is possible that this legislature may grant to all the cities the same right of self government.

Albert McClellan Mathewson.[1]

✠

Ohio Constitutional Amendments.—Four more amendments will be submitted to the voters this autumn. Two deal with the question of the short ballot, the third with the right of women to hold administrative offices in institutions devoted to the care and welfare of women and children, and the last exempts from taxation state, county, municipal and township bonds. One of the short ballot amendments makes the offices of attorney general and state treasurer appointive, and the other one removes the requirements that county officers must be elective and leaves it to the legislature to change them to the appointive list if it so desires.

✠

Michigan Constitutional Amendments.—Five constitutional amendments were submitted at the special election on April 7. Three were adopted and two defeated. Those which were adopted provided for the initiative and referendum on constitutional amendments, on legislative matters, and for the recall of elective officers, the votes being respectively 204,796 to 116,392; 219,057 to 152,388; 237,743 to 145,412. Two of the amendments submitted were defeated, one dealing with woman suffrage, the other providing for a fireman's pension fund, the votes being for the first mentioned 168,738 for to 264,882 against, and for the latter 179,948 for to 206,204 against.

II. FUNCTIONS

Municipal Utilities.—*State versus local utility commissions.* The line of demarcation between state and local control of municipal utilities continues to be a question of importance in many sections. The question is now raised in Minnesota. William D. Marks, consulting engineer, has been one of the advocates for the local commission for large urban centers on the ground that the commission is essential for each large metropolitan community in order that the state commission may not be overloaded with work, and in order to leave to each metropolis "the right to adjust its own rates with its public service corporations."

The new public service commission law of Missouri, signed March 18, repeals the statutes under which Missouri cities were authorized to create local public service commissions.

The League of Nebraska Municipalities which held its meeting in Lincoln, Neb., January 14, 15 and 16, adopted a resolution to the effect that the legislature should not give to the state railway commission any jurisdiction over rates and services of municipal utilities without the consent of the municipality to changes in rates or service.

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[1] A member of the New Haven common council, 1892, and judge of the New Haven city court, 1905-1911. For the past twenty-five years he has drafted many changes to the New Haven city charter and has been interested in municipal improvements. In 1896, he drafted the charter which was enacted and under which the city is now governed.

The Canadian railway act, as revised, includes amendments meeting the request of the Union of Canadian Municipalities, making clear that the railway commission has jurisdiction over all federally incorporated power, transmission, and telegraph and telephone companies, but reserving to municipalities the right of control over their own streets.

The basis for the conflict seems to be in the fact that state control is essential for the proper regulation and protection of small urban, of interurban and of rural interests, while the larger cities especially are beginning to see the importance of home rule. The problem is to get centralized control with adaptability to local conditions.

Municipal ownership is receiving renewed attention. A table prepared by Frank C. Jordan, secretary of the Indianapolis Water Company, giving the water rates for 249 cities where a meter rate is charged and all service furnished through meters, and 198 cities where a flat rate is charged, reveals the fact that, where the plant is municipally owned, the meter rates average 20 cents; where privately owned, 30 cents. In the flat rates, the average rate for a six-room house is $7.06 where supplied by a private company and $6.05 where supplied by a municipal plant. In the absence of data making sure that municipal plants included in their rates sinking funds and other overhead charges, this seems to point pretty conclusively to the advantage of municipal ownership of water works.

J. F. Ford, of Fort Dodge, has prepared a table showing that out of 330 cities in Iowa, 310 have municipally owned, and but 20 privately owned, water works. He finds that the cost of service is considerably lower under municipal than under private plants. In the municipal plants the rates range from 8 and 10 to 35 and 40 cents per 1000 gallons. All are self-supporting and the great majority are paying goodly profits into the city treasury.

San Francisco is planning to extend the Geary Street railway which it owns and operates so as to provide adequate transportation service for the exposition of 1915. City Engineer O'Shaughnessy has estimated that the total attendance at the exposition will be 8,640,000, a daily average of 30,000, with a gross daily attendance of 40,000. The daily street car revenue he estimates at $3000, totaling $864,000. If to this the fares of 10,000 workmen during the year 1914, and 2500 during the year after the exposition, are added, the grand total of estimated street car revenue is brought up to $1,239,000. Operating expenses will take two-thirds of this sum so that a gross profit of $413,000 is looked forward to.

Los Angeles, according to a recent editorial in the Los Angeles *Tribune*, is finding municipal ownership of its water works to be a decidedly paying investment. The city purchased the water works ten years ago, and found them in such bad shape that they had to be practically rebuilt. However, despite this outlay, rates were immediately reduced 33⅓ per cent. Further reductions have since been made until the rates in Los Angeles today are less than 10 cents per 1000 gallons. In the meantime, the city has paid off over $500,000 of the $2,000,000 of bonds issued in payment for the plant. As the city today has four times the population it had ten years ago, propositions have been submitted for the extension of the plant. The bond issue of $6,500,000, in order to finish the first unit of the aqueduct power system and to install a transmission line to the city of Los Angeles, and provide a distributing system within the city, on April 15 received an affirmative vote of 30,615 out of 51,415, but as a two-thirds vote was essential to its adoption, the proposition was defeated.

"*Public Service*," published at the Peoples Gas Building in Chicago, an organ of the gas interests, points out that the taxpayers of Seattle, have lost $50,000 a year on their city plant. No evidence is presented as to wherein the loss occurred, or whether or not it was due to the probable fact that, in order to encourage manufacturing and commercial usage and the industrial development of the city, charges to consumers have been slightly increased over those a private concern might charge.

Subway. The Missouri legislature has recently passed a constitutional amendment authorizing St. Louis to become indebted to the extent of $77,000,000 for the construction of a municipal subway. The amendment goes to the people for ratification at the fall election of 1914. If the amendment is adopted, St. Louis can issue subway bonds and can own and operate the subway. Under the proposed amendment, Kansas City is also authorized to issue subway bonds. Philadelphia and Chicago are also considering subway legislation.

Detroit, on April 7, voted to adopt an amendment to the city charter providing for the municipal ownership and operation of all street railways within Detroit. The control and operation are vested in the hands of a non-salaried board of street railway commissioners, three in number, appointed and removed at will by the mayor of the city. This board has full power and authority to appoint a general manager and to employ all other experts, officers and agents needed for the operation of the railway. An especially interesting section is the one requiring that:

> The rate of fare on said street railway system shall be sufficient to pay, and the said board shall cause to be paid: (a) Operating and maintenance expenses, including paving and watering between tracks. (b) Taxes on the physical property of the entire street car system, the same as though privately owned. (c) Fixed charges. (d) A sufficient per cent per annum so as to provide a sinking fund to pay the principal of the mortgage bonds issued at their maturity and such other additional per cent per annum to provide in the sound discretion of the board, a sinking fund to pay the principal of the general bonds issued as soon as practicable, to the end that the entire cost of said street railway system shall be paid eventually out of the earnings thereof.

The amendment is now before the courts to test its validity.

Melbourne, Australia. Municipal ownership and operation of the entire system of street railways are planned for as soon as the present franchise expires, in a couple of years. Melbourne expects to follow the example of Sydney, the largest city in Australia (population 750,000), in which the street railway system is owned and operated by the state of New South Wales. In Wellington, New Zealand, also, the entire system of street cars is owned and operated by the city, as it is in Christchurch and in Dunedin, New Zealand.

A Municipal Tramways Trust is under consideration for Melbourne, and suburbs. The scheme has been approved by the constituent councils. The tramways systems and suburbs and their future development and extension, including present cable and horse trams, all extensions and additions both in inner and outer areas, are to be under the control of a "municipal tramways trust," consisting of representatives from the various municipalities interested. There are to be ten members of the trust, and a paid chairman to be elected by the trust and to hold office for five years. The chairman cannot be a member of any of the councils represented in the trust. The representation of municipalities is on a population basis, with one vote for every 5000 or part thereof of the population in the municipality. Members of the trust are to be elected for three years by the council or group which they represent, one-third to retire annually.

Telephone ownership in England. The post office department of the government has become owner of the National Telephone Company's plant. The company claimed nearly £21,000,000 and got £12,515,264, not as much as it wanted, but probably as much as it expected. The basis of purchase by the post office was what is known as "tramway terms," a phrase which interpreted means the "then value, exclusive of any allowance for past or future profits of the undertaking or any compensation for compulsory sale or any other consideration whatever." The railway commissioners, Sir James Woodhouse dissenting, have admitted within this definition an allowance for the cost of raising capital. The expenses charged under this heading comprise £85,000 for commission; £85-000 for brokerage; £66,000 for discount; £3750 for share capital registration duty; £2062 for stamp duty; and £1500 for advertising. As this award stands, tramway plants will increase in value every time it changes hands by reason of the money spent in raising the capital to purchase it. "Therefore," as the editor of the *Municipal Journal* points out "the more it changes hands the more valuable it becomes—an unthinkable proposition." The commissioners' decision is important, as it would make a forbidding item in the purchase of tramways by municipalities.

Returns to gas and electric companies. The relative increases and decreases of the gross and net earnings of steam railroads, of electric railways, of gas and electric companies and of industrials for each of the nine years from 1902 to 1910, have been prepared by Henry L. Doherty and Company, of New York City. The tables reveal the following increases in gross and net earnings: industrials, gross earnings increased 25 per cent, net earnings, 12 per cent; steam roads, gross earnings increased 64 per cent, net earnings, 45 per cent; electric railways, gross earnings increased 68 per cent, net earnings, 48 per cent; gas and electric companies, gross earnings, 105 per cent, net earnings, 84 per cent. Only the industrials showed a decrease in gross and net earnings, and that only during 1904 and 1908. The phenomenal increase in gross and net earnings of gas and electric companies probably indicates the extended use of those agencies for manufacturing as well as for lighting purposes, and also their cheaper production. It would seem from this that we should shortly expect some diminution in rates for such services.

Perpetual franchises. That the day of the perpetual franchise is not entirely gone may be gleaned from the fact that the stocks and bonds of the following companies have been highly advertised recently with their perpetual franchise as a main feature of their value.

The Philadelphia Rapid Transit Company is issuing a series of coöperative bulletins for the guidance of their employees and for the general education of the public. The bulletins are on such subjects as: Coöperative plan, motormen and conductors, employees insurance and pensions, coöperative beneficial association, improved car service, etc.

Iowa Municipal Ownership Rates.—Mayor J. F. Ford of Fort Dodge, Iowa, has written a paper in which he draws a comparison between the rates charged in cities where plants are municipally owned and operated and those where the service is furnished by private corporations. In securing data for this paper, Mayor Ford received information from 330 Iowa cities, 310 of which had municipally owned plants. While there is a wide difference in rates, due to different conditions in localities, the statement is true that the cost of service is considerably less where municipal plants are operated than where the private plants furnish the service. Using a table prepared by the secretary of the Indianapolis water company including 249 cities having meter service, and 198 cities having a flat rate, Mayor Ford shows that under municipal ownership, meter rates average twenty cents; under private corporations, thirty cents. In flat rates, the average for a six room house is $7.06, when supplied by a private company; $6.05 when furnished by a municipal plant. Mayor Ford feels that the information he received was overwhelmingly in favor of municipally owned plants.

Clyde L. King.[1]

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[1] Of the University of Pennsylvania.

The District of Columbia and the Bruère-Mitchell Proposal.[1]—The Bruère-Mitchell proposal, recently submitted to President Wilson, for establishing a model government in the district, possesses the particular merit of forming a possible basis for a nation-wide movement to secure federal support for the solution of municipal problems and the establishment of municipal standards. However, it seems desirable to point out some of the obstacles existing to a realization of the plan for making Washington in every respect a model for other cities to copy.

It is rather unfortunate, from one point of view, that Washington cannot be regarded as typical of American cities in general, on account of the relatively small amount of manufacturing and large business enterprises; the absence of a large foreign population and the relative freedom from congestion, all of which result in special problems which must be met in other localities and which a survey of Washington would barely touch upon.

Washington, moreover, enjoys the unique distinction of being the nation's capital and is therefore not to be compared with other American cities, but rather with the world's *capitals*. Consequently, the city beautiful idea has naturally been given a preëminent rank, thus involving improvements, the cost of which would in general make them extravagant examples to follow. However, this does not offer any obstacles to giving Washington, as well as all other American cities, the benefits of the best governmental methods that can be devised.

The federal government at present pays one-half the cost of local administration, and it will logically demand a controlling voice as long as it contributes any portion of the cost. Since the federal government is a very large owner of land and improvements and since local expenses generally are greatly increased by virtue of the fact that Washington is the nation's capital, it is generally agreed that the nation as a whole should contribute liberally towards the operating expenses of the district. In recent years, the so-called half and half principle has several times been attacked on the ground that the federal government should not be called upon to assume so large a portion of the cost. Naturally, local sentiment is strongly opposed to changes in the present form of government through which this might be brought about.

While Washington is nominally a commission governed city, in reality the commissioners are responsible to a municipal council, consisting of the house and senate district committees on the district. Since members of Congress would rather serve on committees having a wider field of activity or having more direct relation to the interests of the home state or home district, membership in the district committees is seldom a much sought honor. This and other factors result in many changes in membership every two years, so that few members serve long enough to familiarize themselves thoroughly with local conditions. In addition, Washington is unlike any other city in the country in that its citizens are not given a direct voice in its government. From some standpoints this might be considered as an advantage, since civic advancement has too often received setbacks, before administrative or other changes undertaken have been given a fair trial, by unthinking masses controlled by political machines.

The civil employees of the government generally retain citizenship in the states from which they were originally appointed and therefore do not, as a rule, manifest any deep interest in local affairs. Washington also serves as the home of many Americans who have attained business success or social prominence and who tarry only during the social season though many of them have built handsome homes. Naturally this class is not interested in suffrage. A considerable portion of the actual resident population is of southern extraction and is far from being free from race prejudice. The majority would therefore prefer to remain without a vote rather than to see themselves put on equal terms with the colored race, which constitutes almost 30 per cent of the entire population.

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[1] See article on "The Federal Government as a Potential Contributor to Municipal Advancement" in the supplement to January, 1913, issue, page 33.

From the above it will be seen that the difficulties of changing the *form* of government of the District of Columbia so as to serve as a model for other cities must not be underestimated. However, although the *form* of government is of great importance, since it should be of such a character as to furnish adequate assurance that continuity of purpose will not be endangered, and that due regard shall be paid to honesty, economy, and efficiency, it is of still greater importance to determine specifically what work a city should undertake, to investigate the methods of attaining the particular results desired in order to select the method best meeting the requirements and to determine the best system of administration for carrying out the program decided upon.

To my mind, the principal results to be attained through the municipal survey of Washington which is proposed as a first step, will not be through bringing to light inefficient methods and uneconomical practices which might be found in use, nor in the introduction of better methods in their stead, but rather through the recognition which would result from such a survey that it is well worth while for the nation to give serious attention to the urgent need for the solution of municipal problems in general.

All interested in municipal advancement can find considerable encouragement for federal assistance from the manifold activities of the Department of Agriculture in the immediate interest of the farmer. Since the organization of the department in 1881, the total appropriations have exceeded $180,000,000, the last ten annual appropriations averaging over $12,000,000 and the appropriation for next year amounting to almost $18,000,000. This work has been undertaken by the federal government for various reasons. The problems confronting the farmers are of such a character that they cannot be solved by individual effort, requiring painstaking investigation and elaborate experimentation in order to secure reliable results. Moreover, many of the problems concerning a given crop are the same throughout the whole country and the results obtained from investigations are therefore equally applicable throughout the land. Hence, the economy of investigating such problems through thoroughly organized agencies, by specially trained investigators in well equipped laboratories, experiment stations and experiment farms and in the most thorough manner. The success obtained and the inestimable benefits accruing to agriculture have naturally led to extensions of the work in every direction. This information is brought to his very door by the rural free delivery, in the form of bulletins, and even by agents of the department whose function it is to educate him in farm management and farm economics in the broadest sense of the terms. Commissions are sent abroad in his interest to report on improved methods of agriculture, to invesgate agricultural credit systems through which his effective capital may be increased. Roads are improved so as to facilitate hauling from the farm to the shipping point and finally the federal government is planning to investigate for him the methods of marketing his produce so as to yield the largest net returns.

While this work has been undertaken at the instance of the farmer, it has no doubt been of direct benefit to the consumer as well. American agriculture in the 90's was facing a serious crisis through the failure of crops resulting from droughts, the ravages of insect pests, the wide-spread prevalence of plant diseases (then little understood), etc. The small profits of farming, the long hours of hard labor, the difficulties of securing farm help and the relative unattractiveness of farm life led to the extensive abandonment of the farm and a further increase of the congestion of our already overcrowded cities, and something *had* to be done to remedy conditions. Without any question the benefits resulting to American agriculture and the allied industries through the work of the Agricultural Department have yielded returns many times exceeding the sums appropriated by the government.

It is hardly necessary to point out that the urban classes of our population are equally entitled to federal consideration. Municipal problems are multiplying fast and only a few of our cities have the means to undertake their solution. Moreover, this can only be attempted with a reasonable assurance of success under the most favorable conditions, so that a comprehensive program is practically out of the question in any of them. Since the individual cities are not equipped to undertake this important work as it should be taken up, it might be suggested that much could be accomplished through their coöperation, but this is obviously impossible under existing conditions on account of the lack of authority. The remaining alternative of enlisting the assistance of the federal government is the only feasible one which offers itself and it is to be hoped that the further consideration of the Bruère-Mitchell proposal will bring this issue to an early decision.

F. A. Wolff.

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Accounting Notes.—*A Handbook.* Unquestionably the most important event during the last quarter to those interested in municipal accounting was the publication by the Metz Fund (New York bureau of municipal research) of a handbook on municipal accounting.[1]

St. Louis' new system. A special report descriptive of St. Louis' new accounting system was issued by Comptroller Taussig of that city in April. The system was devised and installed by Peter White, C.P.A. The report which was also prepared under his direction is both interesting and instructive. The facsimile productions of the new accounting forms are of special value. Some of the defects requiring further action in order to correct them are clearly enumerated, the chief one being in the budget procedure. In devising a cost system for the park department use has widely been made of the mnemonic classification. The classification of appropriations by departments, bureaus, accounts and objects has been based on an actual analysis of vouchers showing the city's purchases. A combination of figures and letters, (not however the mnemonics) comprises the code designations which will be used in the accounting and auditing processes. A complete index of commodities comprehended within each of the twenty standard accounts has been prepared for use of the city departments.

Other classifications. In connection with the budget classifications of St. Louis above noted, accounting officers and students should also be familiar with the classifications recommended by the President's commission on economy and efficiency; also with those developed by Chicago, New York and Cincinnati. The department of public works in Philadelphia has probably done more in the line of cost keeping with the mnemonic symbol than any other city.

Street cleaning costs. Commissioner Edwards of New York has established a bureau of efficiency and statistics, the principal function of which will be to develop unit costs of cleaning the New York streets. The system was devised with the assistance of the New York bureau of municipal research and installed in April. Owing to the varied methods employed in cleaning and the varied kinds of streets cleaned the task of devising an adequate cost system was most difficult. At the end of each month it is planned to transfer the unit costs to graphic charts for the information of the entire executive force.

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[1] See review of same by Martin A. Gemünder in "Book Reviews," infra.

Springfield also wants unit costs. Before the report of the recent survey Springfield, Mass., was published the department of streets and engineering anticipated its conclusions and retained the New York bureau of municipal research to devise and install a complete system of unit costs.

Pacific coast cities also surveyed. The New York bureau also surveyed during the last quarter the city accounting and business methods of Los Angeles, Cal., and Portland, Ore., also the administrative methods of the Port of Portland. Both of the former reports, including the constructive recommendations, are being printed in pamphlet form by citizen committees in the respective cities.[1]

HERBERT R. SANDS.

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Proportional Representation.—The election of city councils, especially in connection with the manager plan of city government, by the "proportional" or unanimous-constituency system has been actively urged during the past few months by the American Proportional Representation League. The particular plan of proportional representation advocated for this purpose is the Hare, often called the "single transferable vote," essentially like that used for the election of the parliament of Tasmania and the senate of South Africa, and to be used, if the home rule bill becomes law, for both the senate and the house of Ireland. Under this plan the members of the council would be elected from multi-membered districts and preferably at large for the whole city, and each would be sent in by a unanimous-constituency of supporters built up at the election itself, without any primaries, by means of the preferential ballot used. An explanation of the system, the full text of the provisions necessary for carrying it out, and the advantages claimed for it in connection with the manager plan are contained in the League's "Pamphlet No. 2," copies of which have been placed at the office of the REVIEW for free distribution to any reader who may apply for it.

The idea of electing the council, under the manager plan, by the Hare system has been received with favor in many quarters, notably by individual members of several of the charter commissions now sitting in Ohio cities and by the Socialist party's information bureau and committee on municipal government.[2] In no American city at the time this is written, however, has proportional representation been actually adopted for the election of the council.

Los Angeles election. On March 24, when several proposed amendments to the charter of Los Angeles were put to vote, an amendment providing for the election of the council by a novel method of proportional representation, devised by George H. Dunlop, was defeated. Advocates of the amendment were encouraged by the result, however, for although the campaign of education lasted but a few weeks, the amendment came within three votes per precinct of carrying and a counter proposition to go back to the ward system was defeated by over 12,000 votes.

Lord Avebury's death. I regret to have to record the death on May 28 of Lord Avebury, better known by his earlier title of Sir John Lubbock. For many years Lord Avebury has been president of the Proportional Representation Society (of Great Britain), to whose effective propaganda work is largely due the adoption of the Hare system in Tasmania and South Africa and its incorporation in the parliament of Ireland bill.

American Proportional Representation League. The general organization in this country devoted to proportional representation especially and to preferential majority voting incidentally is the American Proportional Representation League, the officers of which are as follows: President, William Dudley

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[1] This work has been under the direct supervision of Mr. Sands himself.—EDITOR.

[2] See Subdivision VI of this department.

Foulke; vice-presidents, Prof. J. R. Commons, W. S. U'Ren, and Mrs. Louis F. Post; secretary-treasurer for Canada, Robert Tyson, 20 Harbord Street, Toronto; secretary-treasurer for the United States., C. G. Hoag, Haverford, Pa. (June 1 to October 1, Tamworth, N. H.).

For work in New York and New Jersey a new organization has been formed, the Representative Government League. The officers are: President, John E. Eastmond; secretary, W. Ward Damon; treasurer, Albert E. Woolf. The offices of this League are at Room 904, 154 Nassau Street, New York City.

C. G. Hoag.

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Electoral Reform.—*Missouri.* The McGrath municipal primary bill follows the state primary law. Each candidate is required to file a declaration within twelve days before election naming the office to which he aspires. He must make a deposit of 5 per cent of one year's salary, the money to be paid to the chairman of the city central committee. The entire cost of the primary is borne by the city. No person is permitted to vote unless he is known to be affiliated with the political party he names. The voter must obligate himself by oath or affirmation to vote the ticket of the party named. Candidates of each party must meet and formulate a city platform on the Tuesday following the primary. *New York.* Governor Sulzer is making an active campaign for the adoption of a real direct primary. It is expected a special session of the legislature will be called to consider it. Among the literature being distributed by the governor is a pamphlet containing his message and a report on the Sulzer bill for state-wide direct primaries and an explanation of its features. *Pennsylvania.* A bill for the registration and enrollment of the voters of the state according to their respective party affiliations at the time of registration has been passed. *Philadelphia.* The city solicitor has given an opinion that the members of the police department could be used to canvass assessors' and registry lists of voters to check up their accuracy.

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Police News.—*Suffrage parades.* The police departments of many cities have had difficulty during the past few months in policing suffrage parades properly, but the New York police department afforded adequate protection to the suffrage paraders this year by assigning an officer and ten men to each 200 feet, with an adequate reserve force. A street crowd which is unable to protect suffrage paraders through motives of chivalry can easily be compelled to respect their rights by an adequate police force.

Chicago report. The Chicago police report contains little of interest to the student of police administration. Its discussion of police problems is confined to about six pages. It contains no statistics of complaints and convictions, rendering the deduction of indices of efficiency impossible. About seventy pages are devoted to details of personnel of the force and to individual cases handled by the force. Reprints of the reports of bureau chiefs comprise most of the remaining pages of a pamphlet of 140 pages.

Annual parades. Most of the large cities in this country have an annual police parade in spring. Almost all the members of the force take part in this parade and devote many weeks to drilling for it. It is believed that this drilling improves the morale of the force and that the martial appearance and the numerical strength of the force on parade has a salutary effect in increasing the esteem in which the force is held by the public. It is doubtful whether under modern conditions the annual police parade accomplishes either of these two results. Men who are obliged to devote to drilling a portion of the time usually devoted by them to rest and relaxation derive comparatively little benefit therefrom, especially when it is confined to only a few weeks of the year. The attitude of the street crowds on parade day clearly indicates that the parade exposes the men to ridicule rather than to increase the esteem in which they are held. It is believed that an annual field day for the police with athletic games in which the policemen and the members of their families take part and to which the general public is invited would do much more to improve the physical condition of the men and increase the esteem in which they are held than an annual parade.

LEONHARD FELIX FULD.

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New York City Health Department Promotion System.—Under the general civil service rules in force in New York City, all promotions from one salary grade to the next higher grade must be made from among the first three persons standing on the promotion eligible list as a result of a competitive examination in which eligible departmental employees are rated according to their responses to questions on their duties, on their length of service, and on their efficiency as rated at quarterly intervals by the efficiency board of the department.

Commissioner Lederle, of the department of health, in his executive order No. 84, develops the rules in several respects:

a. In cases of promotion from one salary grade to the next higher grade, he appoints absolutely the person whose name stands at the head of the eligible list instead of one of the three as required by law.

b. In cases of advancement in salary within a civil service salary grade he appoints the employee highest on the promotion eligible list for the next higher grade. In the absence of a promotion eligible list he advances to the higher salary the employe having the best civil service efficiency and seniority record.

c. Instead of establishing separate promotion eligible lists for each bureau and division of the department as is permitted by the civil service rules he establishes a single promotion eligible list for the entire department. As vacancies are of more frequent occurrence in the department than they are in any single bureau of the department this system increases the chances of each individual on the promotion eligible list.

By this development Dr. Lederle removes the subject of promotions entirely from the realm of political influences.

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Imperial and Local Taxation in England.—There is a growing dissatisfaction among municipal corporations in England with the policy of the national government in forcing new duties upon the local governments involving ever increasing expenses for matters that in the opinion of the local authorities are national and not local concerns. This dissatisfaction is voiced in questions in parliament and in public expression in meetings of local officers of all kinds. The London *Municipal Journal* scores the government in a sarcastic editorial on this point, criticising particularly the local government board (John Burns) and the chancellor of the exchequer (David Lloyd George) for their attitude in the matter and ridiculing the departmental committee on imperial and local taxation appointed in April, 1911, for not having as yet come to any conclusions on these questions.

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Pittsburgh Tax Readjustment.—Practically all revenue for municipal purposes in Pittsburgh is raised by taxing real estate. About four-sevenths of this revenue is raised from the value of land, while the other three-sevenths comes from the value of improvements. There is now afoot in the city, however, an energetic movement to remove half of the present tax from real estate improvements, one-fifth of such reduction to be made each year for a period of five yers. Incidentally the measure seems to be favored by Mayor Magee, who is credited with ability to get it through.

School Funds in New York City.—The question has been raised by the board of education whether or not the finance department of the city government has the right to fix the total amount of the school appropriation and fix the amounts to be spent for specific purposes. The board contends that in so doing the finance department is assuming duties that are purely a matter of school administration while the department claims that it is compelled to take this course to protect the taxpayers. At present there is no clear definition of the legal status of the board's claim.

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St. Louis Financial Economy.—According to the *Star*, Comptroller Benj. J. Taussig, of St. Louis, has saved his city $4,000,000 by his arduous attention to his office, elimination of political sinecures and purchase of supplies at extortionate charges, and introduction of modern business methods and accounting in the business affairs of the city.

III. CITY PLANNING AND IMPROVEMENT

England's Housing Problem Not Solved.—England has been working for the betterment of housing conditions for a good many years and in the course of those years has tried most known methods. Its garden city of Letchworth, its garden villages and suburbs like Bournville, Port Sunlight, Hampstead and Ealing, have won deserved recognition because of their demonstration that good housing is good from every point of view, economic and human. Its tremendous efforts to annihilate the slums by buying them up, demolishing old buildings and erecting wholesome dwellings in their place, all at public expense, have been worth their cost, if not to the cities which paid the bills, at least to the rest of the world which watched and learned that here was a sure method of bankrupting the municipality before the end aimed at had been achieved. Its individual workers, among the foremost of whom must be reckoned the late Miss Octavia Hill, showed on the other hand that hope and solvency lie in putting the burden for improvement of slum houses on the owner and the tenant, whose coöperation in working for higher standards will redound to the benefit of themselves and the community. A similar work has been successfully carried on since 1896 by the Octavia Hill Association in Philadelphia, while in New York the late Miss Ellen Collins demonstrated the practicability of this method of dealing with the housing problem of the poorest paid wage earners. Last, England has tried legislation. Its housing acts of 1890 and of 1909 are tremendous in purpose and in scope. And unquestionably they have been producing results. But also unquestionably they have not produced such results as were expected.

The National Housing and Town Planning Council publishes in the *Municipal Journal*[1] a memorandum which expresses its disappointment over the results of this legislation, gives what it believes are the reasons for the present unsatisfactory situation and proposes remedies. "It is possible," says the council, "to travel from Aberdeen to Plymouth and not find a hopelessly unfit factory, whereas at almost every village and town en route there are houses which are quite unfit for people to live in, and if the present rate of progress in destroying unfit houses is continued, then some slums will be existing in a hundred years' time."

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[1] August 3, 1912. As a result of this agitation a bill was introduced in parliament, entitled "The Housing of the Working Classes Bill," which contained many of the recommendations in the memorandum, including the proposals for state grants for housing. This bill had the support of members of all parties though introduced as a private bill by a member of the opposition. It passed second reading in the house of commons but was killed in committee as the result of an announcement by John Burns, president of the local government board, on May 1, 1913, that the administration would not sanction the grants of money called for. "The government were opposed to the grant," he said, "because in their view it was wrong in principle and inadequate in amount."

Such a prospect is discouraging to a nation which has come to realize through bitter experience that unwholesome housing is undermining its stamina and efficiency. But the reason for this slow progress is, in the council's opinion, easily found. It is a reason quite familiar to Americans, divided responsibility. Those monumental acts of 1890 and of 1909 were mandatory in their language, as they should be if anything was to be expected of them. They were emphatic, too, in stating that houses unfit for human habitation shall be closed or destroyed and that those not in all respects reasonably fit for human habitation shall be made reasonably fit. But the duty of determining what is unfit or not reasonably fit and of acting on the determination was divided between the local authorities, many of whom are gentlemen who own houses of a kind upon which it is their duty to reach a determination, and the local government board, one of the divisions of the national government.

"The attitude of the local government board in regard to the administration of the housing acts," says the housing council, "has for many years been of a passive rather than an active kind, and the tradition governing this action has in effect been that the full and complete responsibility falls not upon the local government board, but upon the local authority."

The housing council adds, "in the case of factory legislation parliament has given the work of administration to a specially organized and capable body of civil servants with one code, and only one code, to administer, and the compliance with this code, and the disagreeable task of insisting on such compliance has not been left to locally elected bodies of men, in some cases interested in the property concerned." So England has an effective administration of its factory legislation and a non-effective administration of its housing legislation. But instead of proposing that the lesson thus clearly set forth in its own memorandum be followed, the council recommends a half-way measure. "The problem," it says, "is not one of defining spheres of responsibility, but taking strenuous action to deal with an evil of grave national importance . . . . there shall be established at the board a fully equipped department for the purpose of stimulating housing action and definitely seeking out those areas in which housing duties are neglected and insisting on their proper performance." In order to accomplish this the local government board shall have a staff of traveling officers who shall seek out the most insanitary districts and "without spending unnecessary time in making exhaustive inquiries" report on conditions. Then the board shall use its power to make the local authorities do their duty.

This work is much like that now done in America by volunteer citizens' associations, the national organizations supplying the necessary experts for investigation and advice, the local ones bringing the pressure to bear upon the authorities. The English plan has an advantage in that the local government board has legal powers which a citizens' association has not, but the American method has the very great advantages that it is, first, of practical educational value in self government and, second, that the pressure is exerted by local citizens upon their representatives, not by an outside power whose interference may be resented as that of an interloper aiming to diminish local self-government. But in the opinion of the housing council, apparently, dependence can not be placed on English citizens' organizations. "It may be objected," the memorandum continues, "that the local authorities will resent this 'interference' on the part of the board. Parliament, however, in placing these duties upon the local authorities, has recognized that local public opinion is not sufficient to secure remedial action."

In this memorandum the failure of English housing methods to date to meet in adequate measure the greatest need is virtually admitted by the council's argument for government aid in building houses which shall be rented at far below a fair return on the investment. "We anticipate," it says, "that many objections will be taken on the ground of economic soundness, but as these objections were not taken in the case of Irish laborers, we fail to recognize their validity in the case of English laborers. The truth is that the whole policy of dealing with these conditions of disease is unsound from an economic point of view. . . . Parliament has, however, quite wisely determined to put an end to conditions of disease."

In other words, the English laborer does not earn enough to enable him to rent a wholesome dwelling. Living in an unwholesome dwelling his health and his efficiency are being so greatly injured that his condition constitutes a national calamity. So immediate is the need for remedial measures that it is proposed to make a whole class, the great majority industrious and willing workers, recipients of alms. But discouragement is not complete, for this situation is expected to be but temporary. The council continues, "We take the view that the charge of properly housing a workman should be a charge on the industry in which he works, and that his wage should be sufficient to enable him to pay a reasonable rent for a proper home without any state assistance at all. Until parliament, however, decides to take action to secure this end the problem of housing the poor will remain, and action which seems to be uneconomic must, as a temporary measure, be taken in order that much graver evils may be averted."

In America there are abominable housing conditions; probably instances can be found here as bad as any in England. But have we or are we getting a class, excluding defectives who are proper subjects for state aid, who are unable to earn enough to pay an economic rent for a wholesome house?

John Ihlder.[1]

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Cincinnati's Smoke Crusade.—Cincinnati is setting an example worthy of emulation in a successful crusade against the smoke nuisance. In 1906 a group of public spirited men and women of this city, actuated by the desire to improve conditions hit upon a definite project of aiming to rid the city of its pall of smoke. They organized the Smoke Abatement League and for seven years this organization has followed a consistent policy of education, for it declared that the smoke problem was an economic one and that its solution was one of education.

At its seventh annual meeting in February the superintendent, Edward S. Jerome, presented a report that was a record of distinct gain. He stated that no other city in the United Sates had supported for so long a period a voluntary association having for its one object the abatement of the smoke nuisance. Emphasizing the educational aspect of the campaign, he said:

> It becomes more and more manifest that we are in a campaign of education. Those engaged in it realize more keenly than ever before that fitful, spasmodic efforts accomplish little. To go out and watch a smoking stack is the simplest thing in the world; to make an arrest of an offender is not difficult; to secure the imposition of a fine is comparatively an easy matter; but to actually stop the smoke—ay, 'there's the rub.' This campaign requires the dissemination of literature bearing on this subject, calling attention to it and throwing light on it; it involves speaking here and there throughout the city in order to awaken interest and to keep that interest from flagging and dying out; it needs an arrest now and then of those careless and indifferent who must be made to realize that this is not a matter of opinion, but of administration of the law. It requires a happy admixture of tact and firmness to secure the coöperation of those responsible for this nuisance—and that's the great public, without whose coöperation our efforts will be well-nigh fruitless.

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[1] Field secretary, National Housing Association.

And the Cincinnati Smoke Abatement League has won that coöperation. In 1912 it employed, besides its superintendent, three inspectors whose work included in twelve months 102,138 separate and distinct watchings from twenty minutes to two hours; the sending of 286 notices to offenders and 640 personal visits to plants.

A most important result of the work of this organization has been the passage of a new smoke ordinance by the council which prescribes that "the chief smoke inspector shall be qualified by training and experience in the theory and practice of the construction of boilers and furnaces, proper combustion of fuel, and the theory and practice of smoke abatement." Under a civil service examination a new inspector was appointed and has for some months been in charge of the city's smoke department. This is in sharp contrast to the general custom that prevails of appointing as inspectors men not qualified for the educational work of the position but overimpressed with the idea that their principal function is that of a police officer and the best test of their efficiency the number of arrests they can make, whether convictions follow or not and whether or not the offender has been instructed as to the correct method of handling his furnace and boiler. As soon as the new inspector was installed the policy of his department became one of help and advice. In the future, plans for the installing of furnaces and boilers will be referred to his office, the result of which, it is predicted, will be that no more smoking plants will be constructed.

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City Improvement Items.—*Denver.* Frederick Law Olmsted contributes to *The City of Denver* his plan for developing the civic center. The plan is an ambitious one and represents the aspirations of a city that has already made considerable progress in the direction of municipal improvement. *Toledo.* The mayor (Brand Whitlock) describes at length in the *Real Estate Magazine* the plans of Toledo for a civic center. *San Francisco.* By a vote of 45,129 to 435 against the proposition to issue $8,800,000 of bonds to erect a city hall and create a civic center was approved. The vote was the largest ever polled at a special election. *Boston.* Mayor Fitzgerald has petitioned the legislature to allow the board of street commissioners of Boston to alter and improve Copley Square by eliminating the original diagonal street across it. *San Antonio, Texas* has given a contract to Myron H. West of Chicago for the preparation of a comprehensive city plan.

New York City. The court house board having charge of the selection of the plans for the new county court house to be erected within the area of the proposed civic center, has selected Guy Lowell as architect, he being one of twenty-two competitors. The cost of the building will be $10,000,000.

Paris. A league for open places has been organized. In a recent pamphlet is discussed the question of drainage and sports and the work that needs to be done in the conversion of the old fortifications into open places is described.

Omaha. The suggestion has been made that a boulevard be run along the path of the recent tornado. According to the Chicago *News:*

> Instead of bestowing unproductive sympathy on the people of Omaha who were victims of the tornado which struck that city on Easter Sunday, the rest of the nation's population should congratulate them on their serene acceptance of the untoward visitation and their apparent determination to turn it to good account. That city is laying plans to make its tornado permanently useful. . . . . The tornado struck through a part of the city that requires a new line of communication. By one hard stroke the path has been swept clean. Now ways and means are suggested for completing the job.

Albany. The City Planning Association is having remarkable success. Its weekly Wednesday noon luncheons are attended by from 150 to 200 persons and much enthusiasm has been manifested. There is a strong desire to have Arnold W. Brunner prepare a plan for the city, but as yet the coöperation of the city authorities has not been secured. He has however submitted a plan for the river front improvement which has been tentatively accepted. *Chicago.* Jarvis Hunt has submitted plans for a great central union terminal for passenger and freight traffic which was set forth in detail in a recent issue of Chicago *Commerce*. *Boston.* The Metropolitan League has issued its third bulletin summarizing the improvements for the year 1912.

Newark and Jersey City. Sundry plans have been issued by the city plan commission. Bulletin No. 2 is a brief preliminary report prepared by George B. Ford and E. P. Goodrich. A "Report on the City Plan of Newark, New Jersey" prepared by the city planning engineer of the department of public works (C. F. Puff, Jr.) has been published by the board of street and water commissioners. "Efficiency in City Planning" is the title of a report recently submitted by E. P. Goodrich and George B. Ford to the city planning commissions of these communities. In the latter city there was a municipal exhibit held from April 28 to May 3, in which each city department showed in concrete form what it was doing for the citizens. Its city planning commission has been issuing a series of short articles dealing with street cleaning and the regulation of street traffic.

New York. The annual reports of the chief engineer of the board of estimate and apportionment (Mr. Nelson P. Lewis) have come to be looked upon as important contributions to constructive city planning work.

Pittsburgh. An effort is making in the present legislature to secure the passage of an act giving the city the right to establish a city planning commission. Mayor Magee is greatly interested in this phase of city work. Several notable contributions have been made to a practical solution of serious difficulties.

St. Paul. The commissioner of public works has published the report of the city engineer which is an interesting discussion of various phases of city development and contains a comprehensive study of its improvement.

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The Harvard School of Landscape Architecture has issued its tentative classification scheme covering the field of city planning, which has been in preparation since the establishment of its special reference library in 1911. The scheme is intended not only to provide for the classification of reference material-books, pamphlets, maps, plans, photographs, plates, and post cards in the library, but also to serve as a basis for the arrangement of notes and other professional data. It will be used in classifying the titles in the bibliography of city planning now being compiled jointly by the Library of Congress and the school. It has further interest in suggesting aspects of the field on which as yet little has been published. The scheme is constructed on the general principles of the Library of Congress classification, which was found to contain no adequate provision for the particular field of city planning. A similar scheme for landscape architecture, in which also the Library of Congress classification scheme is deficient, has been developed by the school and will be issued later. The preliminary outline may be obtained at ten cents.

The complete city planning classification scheme was published June 1 by the University at fifty cents a copy.

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Dresden Allotment Gardens.—Allotment gardening in and about Dresden is a flourishing and popular industry.[1] For a nominal sum any citizen may rent a plat of ground on the edge of the town, which may be used to grow vegetables or flowers or may be fitted up as a recreation spot for his family. A committee exists whose business it is to see that general uniformity of scheme prevails among the amateur gardeners. The usual rent is 2 cents a square yard per annum. Most of the allotments are laid out on otherwise useless tracts of land on the outskirts of the city. They are usually owned by private persons, but in some instances the city is the original owner, and rents the ground to someone else, who subdivides it and re-rents it in small areas. The lessees come from all walks of life. The greatest beneficiaries are small tradespeople, postal employees and industrial workers who put in their spare time to good use by growing vegetables and flowers. This scheme is especially important and feasible in cities ranging in population from 200,000 to 500,000 where the densely crowded centers are not too far from the edge of the town.

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[1] According to Vice-Consul General R. C. Tredwell.

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Continuous House Cleaning in Detroit.—The sanitary committee of the Detroit Health League is weary of occasional well-doing and has decided upon having fifty-two "clean-up weeks" in the year instead of one. The committee is to be composed of three delegates from the board of commerce, each civic organization, and each fraternal organization in the city. The city is laid out into two divisions with two chairmen over each division; each ward is to have two supervisors and each precinct is to have aids to the supervisors. In this way the whole city is laid out and responsibility fixed. Mrs. Mary S. Seabold is the secretary of the committee.

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Troy Civic Betterment.—The Troy Chamber of Commerce is making an effort to bring about civic improvement by way of the various small civic association and fraternal societies which are urged to induce their members to improve their properties and lawns, plant flowers and shrubbery, and remove waste and unsightly conditions. Good results are already evident from the effort.

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Central Park Creators to be Honored.—The New York City Club is fostering a movement to provide a suitable memorial to Frederick Law Olmsted and Calvert Vaux to whose efforts the city is indebted for its celebrated Central Park, the first in America designed in the beginning for public purposes.

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Vacuum Street Cleaners.—Manchester, England, is testing a patent vacuum street cleaner invented by J. and P. Hill of Sheffield, and the experiments so far indicate that the new cleaner is far superior to the old type in that there remain no sweepings to be cleared up by manual labor and that dust raised by the horse drawn broom is avoided.

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The Home and School League of Philadelphia has made an appeal to its members to coöperate with the bureau of highways and street cleaning in improving the condition of the city streets, The women and children are asked to act as volunteer inspectors and to assist in arousing interest in the condition of the streets among the citizens in their own neighborhood.

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City Planning.—The April number of Landscape Architecture is devoted to the city planning studies submitted to the National Conference on City Planning at its Chicago meeting.

IV. POLITICS

The Recent Overturn in Houston.[1]—The primary election for mayor and city commissioners of Houston on March 7 resulting in the complete defeat of the administration party marked the culmination of an extremely bitter conflict. The administration had been in office for eight years, in fact ever since the commission form of government was there introduced, but the only member of the commission returned in the primaries was the finance commissioner who refused to run on the administration ticket.

Mayor Rice was not a candidate for reëlection, but endorsed a Mr. Geiselman, a butcher and meat dealer, for the place. Of the three daily papers in Houston two were anti-administration organs and one supported the administration candidates. The issues involved in the election, according to the views of the two sides were as follows. The administration claimed to have expended money for large municipal improvements such as many miles of street-paving and sewer building, and therefore to be unable for lack of money to have the streets and open ditches kept as clean as might have been desired. As it was, the lack of funds necessitated the incurrence of large debts for permanent improvements, which debts were fought by many influential citizens who, in the eyes of administration supporters, were not used to modern city conveniences and refused to be taxed for them.

The anti-administration forces, on the other hand, accused the authorities of extravagance in administration and of letting contracts without calling for competititive bids. But the keynote of the campaign, as both sides admit, was the complaint that the administration refused access to the books. According to the administration supporters the authorities complied with the law in rendering an annual account and merely refused access to the books to representatives of hostile newspapers who wished to use certain items as a basis for attack.

The successful candidate, Ben Campbell, said after the election:

> I announced my candidacy for office because I did not think that Houston was getting her money's worth in city government and because the people are not allowed full information as to the public affairs. The result indicates that the people had the same idea. There was not enough competitive bidding for contracts with the city. The business was conducted in perfunctory manner in the open sessions of the board of commissioners.

His view seems to have been born out by the election returns which showed a victory of nearly two to one for the Campbell ticket.

The other successful candidates were J. J. Pastoriza, finance commissioner under the former administration who declining to run for renomination on its ticket; H. A. Halverton a merchant of the city and one-time alderman; Matt Drennan a business man and former alderman, and Dave Fitzgerald, a deputy tax collector. The results of the primary were of course virtually conclusive and were confirmed in the regular election on April 14, the only opposition ticket being that of the Socialists.

It may be of interest to note what Frank Putnam, a student of municipal affairs and warm supporter of the Rice administration, thinks of the result of the election in Houston. He sums up his conclusions in these words "The average voter sees more clearly a small fault of administration than a large benefit; it is still easily possible for a brilliant sophist, if eloquent, to sway the majority to mob-madness, the more easily if he is aided by widely circulated newspapers willing for business reasons to distort by misrepresentation and suppression essential facts concerning the faction which they oppose; government by newspaper may soon become as much a menace to sound public service as government by public service corporations." We might add the interesting assertion by the same person that Mr. Geiselman, the butcher candidate "was opposed by hundreds of workingmen voters on the ground that being a plain workingman he was not a sufficiently elegant figure to represent the city on formal occasions." Nevertheless he was the only candidate "who spoke no evil of any man," never lost his temper nor descended to personalities but confined his platform and his very brief public talks to a consideration of the issues of public service.

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[1] The writer is indebted for a very interesting survey of the Houston situation, from which many of the facts here stated are taken, to a communication from Frank Putnam, late commissioner of the city of Houston to study the administration of European cities. Mr. Putnam was a warm supporter of the former administration.

Herman G. James.

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The St. Louis Election.—A complete new municipal ticket was elected in St. Louis on April 1—the mayor, comptroller, collector, president of the board of public improvements, auditor, treasurer, marshal, assessor, city register, inspector of weights and measures, twenty-eight members of the house of delegates and a president and six members of the city council. Six former members of the city council hold over for two years longer, as do also the mayor's mid-term appointees. The recent administration was Republican.

The election did not present any issue in so far as party platforms were concerned. They were all practically identical. The election resolved itself largely into a question of personal fitness. St. Louis is neither a Democratic nor a Republican city. The margin between the two parties has been so small for a long time that a comparatively slight influence could swing the election either way.

In this situation the newly reorganized municipal voters' league was able to play a conspicuous part. While not endorsing any one of the four candidates for mayor, the other nominees on the general ticket endorsed by the municipal voters' league were elected almost without exception and all by a margin of between two and three thousand votes in a total vote of 115,000. The voters' league had much less effect in electing ward representatives. A Republican mayor was elected largely through independent strength and the support of an evening paper run on Hearst lines. St. Louis elected a Democratic comptroller, a Democratic president of the board of public improvements by a plurality of 85 votes, and three Republican and three Democratic councilmen.

It is gratifying to note that men who had been in office and were running for reëlection were reëlected where their record showed them conspicuously fit and were defeated where their record showed them to be unfit. A clean record was the qualification of the municipal voters' league and the league controlled just about enough votes—three to four thousand—to swing the election either way. On the whole, St. Louis will have the next four years, a strong municipal administration.

The most interesting feature of the whole campaign was the nominations under the new municipal primary act recently passed by the legislature. It was St. Louis' first experience with a good party primary. The primary was the means for putting out of existence the "big boss" in politics. One Democratic candidate for mayor, backed by a "big boss," although well qualified, was beaten by an opponent of unsuspected strength because of the popular feeling against bossism.

The city also elected a board of freeholders to draft a new charter for the city, following the defeat of a proposed new charter two years ago. Popular government is really becoming an actuality in St. Louis. It has within six months adopted an initiative and referendum amendment to the charter, authorized the drafting of a new charter, secured a fairly effective primary act and elected as strong a municipal ticket as could be secured from the candidates presented.

Roger N. Baldwin.

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Mayor Thum's Administration.—One of the most interesting municipal documents of the year is the report submitted by the mayor of Pasadena, Cal., William Thum, in May, giving in detail the work done during his administration of the affairs of that beautiful and well managed city. Pasadena has just turned its government over to five commissioners under charter amendments adopted last year. Mayor Thum is a believer in the new sytem, and it was largely through his influence and with his earnest support that the change was made. Unfortunately for Pasadena, Mr. Thum positively refused to be a candidate for a place on the commission; and the report of his stewardship made when he retired is convincing proof of the city's loss in his return to private life. In fact, commission government will have to make an unusual record in Pasadena if it shall improve upon the pace set by this modest and unpretending business man in his administration of its affairs. Mayor Thum gave the city the enormous advantage of having its business conducted with all the care and attention to detail which characterizes the management of a well organized private business. He gave it all of his time; working almost day and night to systematize and coördinate the departments and the administration as a whole. He organized and, under many difficulties, put into successful operation an efficiency bureau. He caused an expert valuation of the properties of the various water companies of the city to be made, and succeeded in effecting a purchase of them on a just and mutually satisfactory basis. He ably championed the cause of municipal ownership and operation of the electric light business, under exceptionally trying conditions; and both the water and light departments made creditable records of efficiency. With a large and wise prevision, he negotiated with the neighboring and adjoining cities of South Pasadena, Alhambra and Los Angeles for joint conduct of municipal enterprises in which they have a common interest. Taken by and large, Mayor Thum's official record is really monumental.

John J. Hamilton.

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Cuban Municipal Elections.—The *Gaceta Administrativa* of Havana gives the returns from the late elections for mayors of the Cuban municipalities. The elections were for a period of four years beginning in December, 1912, and the results by provinces were as follows: Pinar del Rio, conservatives 9, liberals 6; Habana, conservatives 9, liberals 13; Matanzas, conservatives 9, liberals 10; Santa Clara, conservatives 17, liberals 11; Camaguey, conservatives 4, liberals 1; Oriente, conservatives 10, liberals 6. In all six provinces therefore, there were elected conservative mayors in 58 municipalities and liberal in 47.

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London County Council.—Every three years there is an election for members. There are 58 electoral divisions in the administrative council. The city division returns four members and all the other 57 two each, making a total of 118. As a result of the election held this year the membership of the council is made up as follows: municipal reformers, 67; progressives, 50; labor, 1. The municipal reformers gained 9 seats and the progressives 3. The losses were sustained by the labor and socialist parties. The only present labor member of the council is Miss Susan Lawrence.

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Philadelphia's Public Service Committee of One Hundred was organized as a result of the last meeting at which Mayor Blankenburg was the main speaker on April 14. This committee, of which James Mapes Dodge, president of the

Link Belt Manufacturing Company, was chosen chairman, has worked hard for a single legislative chamber elected at large. Failing in securing that at this session of the legislature it will devote its efforts to electing members of council who will support the policies of the mayor. The committee pledges itself to divorce the business affairs of the city from politics.

V. CONFERENCES AND ASSOCIATIONS

American Art Commissions.—On May 13, a meeting of the members of American art commissions was held in New York, upon the invitation of the past and present members of the art commission of that City. Representatives of nearly every one of the fifteen municipal art commissions of the country were present. Two states (Connecticut and Massachusetts) have appointed art commissions and the federal government has appointed a national fine arts commission, and representatives of these were present.

After an address of welcome by Mayor Gaynor, the discussion of the appointment, jurisdiction and work of art commissions was participated in by nearly everyone present. An unusual but very successful feature of the conference was the absence of any prepared paper. No set address at all was delivered. It was all discussón. This applied both to the morning and afternoon sessions.

At the morning session the veto power of art commissions was the chief topic. There appeared to be a general agreement that, so far as a work of art is concerned, there should be an absolute power of disapproval, either of the work itself or of its location. The term "work of art" in this connection is that used in nearly all legislation creating such commissions, which may be stated as follows: "The term 'work of art' shall include all paintings, mural decorations, inscriptions, stained glass, statues, reliefs, or other sculptures, monuments, fountains, arches, or other structures, intended for ornament or commemoration."

With regard to buildings it appeared to be the more general opinion that art commissions should not have an absolute, but merely a suspensory veto power conferred upon them; so that if it is necessary to proceed immediately with a building for utilitarian reasons, this can be done through the passage, by the particular municipality concerned, of an ordinance directing the prosecution of the work notwithstanding the disapproval of the art commission; provided, a stated majority (generally selected as two-thirds) of the aldermen or councilmen so vote.

The importance of giving the power of excess condemnation to cities where art commissions have been appointed was emphasized by the suggestion that where this power is put into execution, art commissions be given authority to pass upon the buildings to go up on the excess property re-sold The suggestion was made that, in the case of such buildings, the veto power should be absolute.

It was generally agreed that the jurisdiction of art commissions should extend not merely to works of art, but to public buildings of all kinds and to all structures of private or semi-public institutions that extend over streets; that it should include the lay-out of parks, parkways, play-grounds and the grounds of public buildings; and that it should also extend to the designs of buildings erected in whole or in part by state or city aid, whether that aid be in the form of appropriation of money or of the setting aside of land for their occupancy.

The method of appointing art commissions was discussed slightly. It appeared to be generally agreed that the legislation should in some way limit the choice of the appointing power to a class of men whose judgment would be expert —that is, that the choice should not be from the general public. The example of Pennsylvania was cited, in which the choice is:

> A painter, a sculptor, an architect, a member of a commission having control of a public park in said city, not holding any other office under the city government, and four other persons, not engaged in the practice of the profession of painting, sculpture, or architecture, but, at the date of their appointment, members of the governing body or teaching force of a corporation or corporations organized under the laws of this commonwealth and conducting a school of art or architecture in said city.

There was some support of the appointment of an entirely professional art commission, but there was not sufficient time for the suggestion to be thoroughly considered. Want of time also prevented discussion as to whether the jurisdiction of art commissions should extend to private dwellings, provided the necessary constitutional changes could be secured, as to which diametrically opposed views were entertained.

The afternoon session, held in the Metropolitan Museum, was devoted chiefly to a discussion of the work of state art commissions and of their methods of appointment. This is a little known field in this country and the two existing statutes are very different.

In order to present the matter more satisfactorily at the conference next year, to arrange for which a committee was appointed, the chair was authorized to appoint another committee of five, to draft model statutes for both state and municipal art commissions. The committee, appointed since the meeting, consists of John B. Pine, chairman, Arnold W. Brunner, both of New York; Andrew Wright Crawford, of Philadelphia; James G. Cutler, of Rochester and Frederick Law Olmsted, of Brookline.

At the dinner at the University Club, the New York Art Commission was again the host. The speeches were informal, only one or two individuals having been notified that they would be expected to speak; volunteer speakers were called for and the call was generally responded to.

This informal method of holding a convention was an unqualified success. The absence of any paper at all, and the admirable and informative discussions of suggestions proved the lack of wisdom in programmes where three, four or five papers are provided for at one session. In the writer's judgment, one paper is always sufficient, provided the authorities in charge of the convention know that it is a good paper; if they have not knowledge that it is a good paper, they ought not to permit it to be given.

The work of art commissions, which has been growing very quietly for the fifteen years since the appointment of the Boston and New York art commissions, is apt to receive a great impetus in the near future owing to the general realization that when a building is erected, it is erected for a century or more, and the best thought ought to be secured. Expecially is this the case where the cost of such expert advice is so slight. A example of this is shown by the recently issued report of the art jury of Philadelphia, in which the following figures are given:

> The total cost of forty-five of the sixty-seven submissions made or considered during the year, the total cost as estimated by the departments or bureaus making the submissions or as shown by contracts, was $9,132,819.00.
>
> The total cost of maintaining the art jury during the year, including equipment and other expenses of the initiation of a new Department, was $3,933.58.

One point clearly demonstrated at the meeting is the distinction between the functions of city planning commissions and art commissions. An art commission is really a jury. It does not initiate; it passes judgment upon plans submitted to it. The work of city planning commissions is essentially formative in character. The duty of such a commission is to foresee and to forecast, to propose and to initiate. There has been some confusion in the minds of individuals with regard to the functions of these two bodies, each of which is a new department of city government. This essential difference between the two should be kept in mind, especially in the formative stages of the work of the two bodies.

Andrew Wright Crawford.[1]

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The Fifth National Conference on City Planning, held at Chicago in May, differed from the preceding meetings in two important ways. For the first time since its organization the conference met west of the Alleghanies in that wide-awake section where city planning has manifested its greatest strength. The conference also, for the first time, undertook to supplement its papers and discussions by the presentation of actual plans, drawings and sketches to illustrate more specifically than papers can, some of the ways in which city planning problems may be advantageously worked out.

The chairman of the conference, Mr. Frederick Law Olmsted, with the coöperation of the members of the executive committee, outlined a city planning program. The subject was presented under three distinct heads: (1) The development of a city planning movement, including a discussion of the organization of unofficial activities and of official bodies to be charged with the duties of city planning; (2) the principal steps in the preparation of a city plan after the machinery for its preparation is established; (3) methods of putting a city plan into execution.

The program which Mr. Olmsted proposed may be summarized as follows: First, to obtain a knowledge of the facts through a city survey covering information as follows—the facts of the physical environment of the people of the city, the social facts concerning the people themselves and the reactions between them and their physical environment, then the economic and financial facts as to the resources of the community and especially the possible means of bringing those resources to bear upon public improvements; finally, the facts as to the legal and administrative conditions which must be reckoned with in any and all attempts to change or control the physical environment. The next step in the program after the survey is to forecast the probable future growth of the city and to define the more important problems to be met in planning its control. After this, as a third step, is the necessity to seek out tentative solutions of these problems, and the fourth and final step is to collate and compare all the serious projects, to pass judgment upon them and by a process of selection, elimination, and mutual adjustment, to weld them into a self-consistent and sensible general plan of procedure to be put into execution as opportunity permits. In concluding his paper, Mr. Olmsted pointed out that since the problem is not merely to make a plan, but to cultivate the habit of planning and of following a plan, the people who most need the training and enthusiasm that come with propagandist effort are the permanent officials themselves. But whether the action is official or unofficial, the early activities are apt to be mainly educational. Among the most effective educational devices is the preparation and publication of what may be called a study for a city plan, of which we have had many illustrations during the last four or five years. This study is an indication of what city planning means, presenting the principal aspects, a survey of conditions, a statement of problems, and presentation of solutions and explanation of their adjustment to each other so as to form a consistent whole.

The report on the study in city planning, in two parts, was read by the chairman of the committee, Mr. John Nolen. The first consisted of brief general comments on the plans and on some of the directly related principles which underlie the problems which these plans attempt, in a measure, to solve. The second part gave special comments by the committee on the merit of particular features of each plan. The main purpose of this study in city planning was not that of a competition; so far as possible, it was a coöperative enterprise inaugurated as a means of bringing together, in a form to facilitate comparison, a variety of sound methods each having its own advantages.

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[1] Secretary of the Art Jury of Philadelphia.

The tract of land which participants in the study were asked to lay out, consisted of about five hundred acres, which was assumed to be located on the outskirts of a growing city with a population of approximately 500,000 and about four miles from the center of the city. The original cost of the land was $2,500 an acre. The demand was estimated to be mainly for the erection of dwellings and for such other purposes as are normally incidental to such a development—retail stores, local places of amusement, schools, churches etc. Practically half of the population, it was assumed, was engaged in or dependent upon work in nearby factories. The majority of families were to occupy dwellings rentable for from $15 to $30 a month.

In its attempt to appraise the more important ideas embodied in the plans submitted by the participants, the committee adopted an outline as a basis for comparison which included all the principal problems of streets, the location and character of civic and neighborhood centers, provision for recreation, the distribution of private property into zones with regard to use and income and the size, shape, and proportion of both blocks and lots. The committee gave not a little attention also to a consideration of finances and methods covering all costs and problems involved in estimating the income on the investment. Significant figures of special interest, based on the statistical statements were as follows: the relative area of property devoted to streets, to parks and to lots ranged from 20 to 28.5 per cent, averaging 25.9 per cent for streets; from 5.5 to 12.9 per cent, averaging 9.3 per cent for parks; from 63 to 74.5 per cent, averaging 64.8 per cent for lots. The average number of families provided for is 6,287, the density of population per acre being 70.[1]

In some respects, the most important paper presented at the conference was that on transportation in city planning by Milo R. Maltbie, of the public service commission, New York City. His paper was discussed at length. In general, the opinion seemed to prevail that the demand for the construction of subways was in many cases unwarranted and should be restrained; furthermore, that the control of transportation development by the city, which Mr. Maltbie advocated, was of the utmost importance.

The final paper was presented by George E. Kessler of St. Louis, and gave the actual distribution of the cost of the Kansas City boulevards. The method followed was that of a form of special assessment against benefited land. In practice the procedure is an amplification of the theory of single land tax. The large financial burden of acquiring land and making permanent improvements has been equably distributed. Land values have been stable and the system has tended toward a segregation of sections for industrial, commercial and residential use.

John Nolen.

Cambridge, Mass.

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Chicago City Club's Housing Exhibition.—The growing realization of the importance of good housing not only to the individual but even more to the community and to such important factors in the community as its industrial, commercial and labor interests, is illustrated by the attention attracted by the Chicago City Club's housing exhibition. A new element has entered into that "city building" which our associations of commerce were organized to further, and it is now recognized that merely to secure new industries or to provide means for the expansion of existing industries is not sufficient. There must also be provided homes for the people who are to man these industries, and the city or town which can provide the best homes within the means of the workers will have an advantage of constantly increasing importance.

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[1] The full report of the committee with reproductions of the plans has been printed as a supplement to *Landscape Architecture* for April, 1913.

The central feature of the exhibition is a series of some forty plans for the development of a quarter section in an outlying district of Chicago. The competition was not limited to local men, so though the first prize was won by a Chicagoan, Wilhelm Bernhard, the second was won by Arthur C. Comey of Cambridge, Mass., and the third by Albert Lilienberg, chief of the town planning commission of Gothenberg, Sweden, in collaboration with Mrs. Ingrid L. Lilienberg. These plans show a radical departure from the typical rectangular street system which reached its apotheosis in Chicago. Mr. Bernard, in fact, stated that he desired to eliminate as much as possible the through running traffic from Chicago proper and so designed his street system that through traffic could find no direct means of crossing the tract. While this would undoubtedly tend to preserve the individuality of the district and to safeguard its residential character it is at least a question whether a lack of any through streets would not make even so small a piece of land as a quarter section somewhat less desirable as a unit in the greater Chicago of the future. Mr. Comey seems to lay greater stress upon the fact that the district is not to be sufficient unto itself but is to be an integral part of the city and so provides a diagonal thoroughfare leading from the corner nearest the down town section of the city. Such a thoroughfare would prove a convenience not only as a part of the street system of the whole city, but also for the district itself, a considerable proportion of whose inhabitants must be presumed to have their business down town and so find this radical way a most acceptable short cut to the corner where the transit lines cross.

It is notable that the Club in drawing up the rules for the competition limited the possible population of the quarter section to 1280 families. This did away with any temptation which some contestants might have felt to show monumental "model" tenement houses. There are a few multiple dwellings indicated on the plans, but the great majority of the people are given opportunity to live in homes instead of barracks.

As a background for the plans the club arranged a very interesting exhibition of existing housing at home and abroad. This exhibition was exceptionally well arranged so that the visitor is gradually led from one phase of the question to another in an orderly sequence which makes the whole more understandable and more interesting. Several organizations coöperated with the Club in this, the Woman's City Club, the Woman's Club, etc., under the direction of Edward L. Burchard[1] of the School of Civics and Philanthropy. The exhibition is divided into four parts: (I) Historical types of dwellings in Chicago from 1830 to date; (II) Types of dwellings now being erected in Chicago; (III) "In darker Chicago;" (IV) Idealistic housing in Europe and America.

Part IV contains not only photographs and plans of the well known garden city and garden suburb developments in England, Germany and the United States but also a very enlightening series of views and maps illustrating the zoning system of the Germany cities. To these Charles B. Ball added a map of Chicago showing how that city might be divided into zones providing constantly better type of housing as the crowded down town district is left farther and farther behind.

In connection with the exhibition the City Club held a series of nine discussions on the housing problem. Among the speakers at these discussions were Ewart G. Culpin, secretary of the British Garden Cities and Town Planning Association; Charles B. Ball, chief sanitary inspector of the Chicago health department, George E. Hooker, civic secretary of the City Club, John Ihlder, field secretary of the National Housing Association, John C. Kennedy and Peter H. Bryce of the department of the interior of Canada.

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[1] A Member of the council of the National Municipal League.

John Ihlder.

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International Congress on School Hygiene.—America for the first time in the history of the International Congress on School Hygiene will be the host of the experts from all parts of the world when this year from August 25–30 the Congress meets at Buffalo, the citizens of which have subscribed $40,000 to cover the expenses. The objects of the Buffalo Congress are: (1) To bring together men and women interested in the health of school children; (2) To organize a program of papers and discussions covering the field of school hygiene; (3) To assemble a school exhibit representing the best that is being done in school hygiene; (4) To secure a commercial exhibit of practical and educational value to school people; (5) to publish the proceedings of this congress and distribute them to each member. The National Muncipal League will be represented at this Congress by the following delegates: Isaac Adler, Hon. James G. Cutler, Joseph T. Alling, Rochester, N. Y; Charles W. Andrews, Virgil G. Clymer, A. C. Chase, Syracuse, N. Y; Hon. Merwin K. Hart, Rt. Rev. Charles T. Olmsted, D.D., Thomas R. Proctor, Utica, N. Y; Munson Havens, Mayo Fesler, Warren S. Hayden, Cleveland, Ohio.

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St. Louis Conference of Federations.—To provide an opportunty to get together, hear and discuss common problems, the executive officers and the chairmen of the executive committee of each of the social federations and associations meet once a month in a monthly conference of federations. It can take two kinds of action: First, it can hear and refer a problem to the proper federation or association for action; second, after action, it can unite the federations in common support of one another, and in this connection maintains a state and a municipal legislative committee for securing necessary legislation. From reports of the various federations the conference prepares a community program setting forth the most important issues facing the city and the people.

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The Union of Canadian Municipalities meets this year in Saskatoon, Saskatchewan, July 15–17. Among the subjects that will receive special attention are putting watered stock into public utility corporations, provisions for the welfare of working population, interprovincial highways, wants of rural municipalities, treatment of garbage vs. incineration, improved system of water filtration and purification, under-representation of cities, town planning, experience of a general city manager.

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World's Christian Citizenship Conference.—The second Conference will meet in Portland, Oregon, June 29 to July 26. Representative men from all of the Christian countries of the world have been invited to gather to discuss and consider the problems of peace and war, emigration and immigration, education and religion, the family and divorce, prison reform and civil service, intemperance, the social evil, dependents and delinquents, and the bases of Christian citizenship.

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The Seventh International Purity Congress will be held at Minneapolis, November 7–12. This organization has been devoting its attention to combating the white slave traffic.

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The Union of Quebec Municipalities has been organized with Alderman Lariviere as president and Talbot M. Papineau as secretary.

VI. EDUCATIONAL AND ACADEMIC

The Socialist Party Information Department and Research Bureau.—In November of 1912 the Socialist party established at its national headquarters in Chicago an information department and research bureau. For a number of years the need of such a department has been felt throughout the party circles. The election of a thousand or more Socialists to public office,[1] which put them in positions where accurate information on specific problems was an absolute necessity, served to emphasize this need. As a result the national secretary, in his annual report to the national convention in 1912, and several special committees joined in urging the establishment of the department. Acting upon these recommendations the national executive committee organized the department and put it in operation.

The scope of the department is wide. In general it answers the inquiries of the party membership on all matters concerning the socialist movement. The service is rendered without charge, and while established particularly for the party membership is not limited to them. Special attention is given to labor problems, conditions of labor, wages, hours, occupational diseases, industrial accidents, etc. And in keeping with this the department has given especial attention to the matter of labor legislation. With twenty-one[2] representatives in the state legislatures of nine different states the legislative program of the Socialist Party is becoming more and more important.

One of the first things the department did was to make a complete collection of all the measures introduced by the Socialists in previous sessions of the state legislature in Wisconsin, with the addition of such other measures as could be collected from Massachusetts and Pennsylvania. A complete set of these bills, numbering over 425 measures, was sent to each legislative group in the nine different states.

The department also specializes in municipal problems. Particular attention is given to the form of government, to municipal ownership, efficiency in administration and the more technical problems of municipal government.[3] In the nature of the case particular attention is given to measures and means for improving the conditions of labor.

In addition to these specific problems the department deals with the more general social and economic problems, such as poverty, vice, crime, coöperation, immigration and the like. It also concerns itself with all Socialist Party methods and tactics.

So far no printed publications have been put out, but each week the national office of the party mails to several hundred Socialist and labor publications throughout the country a weekly bulletin. The information department has two or three or more pages each week in this bulletin.

As to the methods of work followed by the department obviously the first task is the collection of material and information from which the inquiries are to be answered. As the funds of the party available for this purpose were limited, calls were made for volunteer contributions to socialist writers and publications. A surprising response was met with immediately and material on labor, economic and social problems has been gathering rapidly. Several special students of the Socialist movement have provided generously from material gathered through years of research, and in this way the beginnings of a reference department have been gathered. The method of classification adopted is an adaptation of the method used by the congressional library and all the materal is being thoroughly indexed.

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[1] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. 1, p. 492.

[2] One of the Kansas Socialists was ousted by what Socialists regard as a most high-handed procedure in the state senate after his election had been sustained by court procedure. Another representative in Illinois has just lost his seat in a re-count.

[3] See p. 416, this issue.

A most interesting feature of this department is the various lines of coöperating forces that have been brought together. The Intercollegiate Socialist Society of the United States, has in its membership some of the most noted scholars in the university circles of the country. Its secretary, Harry Laidler at once upon the organization of the department offered the services of the organization in coöperation. Special subjects have been assigned to the various students and already many lines of research work are under way. An organization of lawyers numbering 178 located in 36 different states has also volunteered its services gratis to help the Socialist party in its legal problems through the department. The International Socialist Bureau of Brussels, which is a department similar in nature to the bureau here, is also coöperating. And shortly following the establishment of the American bureau, the Socialist organizations of England organized one in that country and there is talk of a similar department among the French socialists. All of these bureaus will naturally work in coöperation.

In view of the fact that a great deal of the scientific literature on social, civic and economic problems, as well as on questions of municipal and state government, is elaborated in the foreign countries, it is of especial significance that the information bureau in this country has at its command a score or more of secretaries representing the different languages. These men have already been put to work on the translation of periodicals, pamphlets and books on various subjects that are thought to be of value for the work of the Socialist party.

In addition to these coöperating forces and effort is being made to gather a corps of consulting engineers, scientists and specialists to assist in the mechanical and engineering problems of the party. Already expert accountants, electrical engineers, civil engineers and scientists, men who are specialists in their lines, have volunteered their services in coöperation with the party. When occasion arises the bureau is able to put a group of Socialists elected to a city council in touch with some of the best and most competent authorities in America along technical lines. In this way it is hoped that the various administrations of the Socialist party, when elected, will be enabled to show the highest possible degree of efficiency.

In addition to the distinctly socialist forces an effort is being made to set up coöperation with all lines of technical information. To this end the department seeks to coöperate with the municipal reference libraries that are being developed throughout the country; with the legislative reference libraries in the various states; with public libraries and technical organizations. The membership of individuals or organizations of the Socialist party in such societies as the International Association of Labor Legislation, the Proportional Representation League, the Direct Legislation League, the Academy of Political and Social Science, the National Municipal League, etc., makes it possible for the bureau of the socialist party to get the very best of service along the lines handled by these organizations.

The members of the party who have been organizing the department realize that it will take time to build it up to the standard desired. But all of the plans are laid upon a broad basis and with an idea of enlarged possibilities of future usefulness.

The director, Carl D. Thompson, was formerly city clerk of Milwaukee, during Mayor Seidel's administration.

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The New Academy of Municipal Administration in Duesseldorf.—The appearance of the first annual report of the Düsseldorf Academy of Municipal Administration calls attention to the latest undertaking of this progressive Prussian city. The proposal for the establishment of a training school for municipal officials originated almost simultaneously on motion of Dr. Brandt a member of the city council of Düsseldorf and at the suggestion of Professor Stier-Somlo of the University of Bonn, in June 1911. The idea was prompted by the ever increasing need for trained men in the administrative positions especially of the smaller cities and towns in Westphalia and the Rhine Province.

The mayor of Düsseldorf instructed a member of the administrative board of the city to enlist the collaboration of Professor Somlo and within a month a scheme for the establishment of such an Academy in Düsseldorf was approved by the city council, a board of directors was appointed from among the membership of the council and 10,000 marks appropriated for preliminary expenses. The Prussian ministry of education regarded the proposed Academy as a public institution of instruction and hence subject to the same regulations and supervision as other institutions of that nature. It was necessary therefore to receive the approval of the central authorities and this was given in October 1911. In the same month the institution was opened and the lectures began.

The ends of the Academy are twofold. First it is meant to offer training for those intending to enter the career of local administration, and second it is to offer opportunities for those already in the work to extend their knowledge of the problems involved. It has the rank of a regular institution of higher learning, for the conditions of admission for those desiring a certificate of examination are the same as those for other Prussian institutions of higher learning.

The instruction is offered for the most part by men who have been admitted to the privilege of lecturing in a university and for the rest by experts in particular fields of municipal administration. The regular course of study, however contemplates only one full academic year's work, although this period is regarded as a minimum and may not be sufficient for every student.

The new undertaking has apparently by no means a smooth road to travel. In the neighboring city of Cologne a somewhat similar institution existed which required, though not absolutely, a period of study of two years. The friends and supporters of the Cologne institution seem to have made strenous efforts to discredit the new Düsseldorf Academy in every way by designating it as a secondary school rather than as an institution of higher learning. They pointed to the further fact in support of their contention that state control was exercised over the Düsseldorf Academy by the district president instead of by the province president as in the case of the Cologne Academy. But the parity of the two institutions was disclosed by a public communication issued by the minister of public instruction at the request of the mayor of Düsseldorf.

The Academy is a municipal institution supported by local revenues. The board of directors comprises the first mayor of the city, one member of the administrative board and six members of the city council. There are also representatives of other local governmental units on the board and this number is to be increased. The appointment of all members of the board as well as of the director of the Academy and of all the teaching staff must be confirmed by the state authorities.

The report for the first year of activity of the Academy shows a total attendance of 130 regular students and 49 nonmatriculated students. The first budget comprised about 50,000 marks, exclusive of costs of fitting up a municipal building for the purpose. In the winter semester 1912-1913 more than twenty different courses of lectures were given by a force of twenty-four instructors and included among others the following subjects; criminal law, constitutional law, law of muncipal corporations, administrative authorities, general political science, and administrative law in general and of particular branches. In addition to these a number of single public lectures by authorities from elsewhere were arranged, and to supplement this technical work lectures on general sociological subjects were also offered. Practical investigations of administrative authorities in action are required of all students.

In view of the growing recognition of the fact that our municipal administration in the United States can never be raised to any satisfactory level without some organized means of training persons for administrative positions, this experiment of a progressive German city cannot fail to be of interest and value.[1]

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The Philadelphia City Club's Wisconsin Expedition.—One of the most remarkable educational adventures that ever took place in this country was the City Club's expedition to the University of Wisconsin. It consisted of 120 persons. The purpose was to study carefully, under the guidance of the faculty of the university, the remarkable educational venture and triumph that the university has wrought through its extension division; because in Wisconsin, better than anywhere else in the world, perhaps, the educational institutions and the government of the people are securely associated for the public welfare, Not only the faculty of the university from President Van Hise and Dean Reber down to the last instructor of the division was at the service of the expedition, but the citizens of Madison associated themselves with the university to make the expedition's stay in Madison as comfortable and as delightful as possible.

The program for the three-days' stay from May 22 to May 24, inclusive, occupied every moment of the time. It was all of a piece and was an endeavor to show through personal testimony and by actual demonstrations of results the "Wisconsin idea" as that idea has been embodied in the institutions and industries of that state.

The program culminated in a masterful address by President Van Hise at the Golf Club Friday noon. The President reviewed the work of the extension division from its beginning to the present hour, and his words were an exposition of the "Wisconsin idea" of education—the teaching of man what he wants to know. Perhaps the address was more than an exposition—some who listened to it called it a defense. I am inclined to think that it was both. Men and women who have been accustomed to hearing great speaking for great causes agreed that this address stands high among the foremost efforts of able educators.

The Friday luncheon was devoted to an exposition by experts of certain characteristic institutions of Wisconsin. The railroad and public utility commission; the industrial commission; tax commission; legislative reference department; and the board of public affairs. With the possible exception of President Van Hise's address already mentioned, these addresses brought us closer to what is known as the "Wisconsin idea" than any others of the program.

Friday night came the faculty dinner. The club's speakers vied with one another in their endeavor to gather up the impressions of the three-days' visit. They all sounded the same note, some more and some less. It had all been a very remarkable experience. It had brought a fresh vision of the great power of education. It had revised some notions that needed revision, and it had suggested new points of view and new endeavors for the state of Pennsylvania.

Well towards the close of this evening's program the Secretary of the City Club, Hubert W. Wells, asked the toastmaster to yield his place to the mayor of Philadelphia and then, addressing the mayor proposed certain resolutions. The resolutions were adopted by a unanimous rising vote. The secretary then went on to say: "Mr. Toastmaster, I have been asked to condense into a sentence or two the impressions of this expedition as to the work of the university's extension division. I think that I can phrase it thus: One of the memorable sentences in Dean Reber's address Thursday morning was this, 'The University of Wisconsin endeavors to find out what a man wants to know and then to teach him what he wants to know rather than to tell him what he needs to know and to teach him what he needs to know.' I can't help feeling that at the heart of this policy rests the conviction that to teach a man what he wants to know is the very best possible preparation for teaching him what he needs to know. Through the golden gate of that experience he will pass to where his teacher can teach him in accordance with accepted standards. I should like to add a word which shall bring to our hosts what we are beginning to call the 'Philadelphia idea.' It runs thus: 'Efficiency in democracy is the security of democracy.'"

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[1] See National Municipal Review, vol. 1, p. 306.

What will be the outcome of the expedition? Two things we trust: First, the coördination of our great institutions of learning in a common endeavor for a better use of the teaching force of these institutions towards raising the general level of the masses of our population; Second, the creating of a public sentiment which shall demand of these institutions of learning an attitude that shall endeavor to meet the needs of the plain man as he comes seeking information with reference to the things that most concern him. The Wisconsin experience was an inspiration to these ends because it demonstrated not what might be done but what has actually been done when serious people set their minds to that training of the masses which is the salvation of democracy.

Hubert W. Wells.

*

A Vocational Bureau Investigation.—Starting vocation bureaus to find jobs for children or to guide children into vocations would be nothing short of organizing a system for exploiting boys and girls. Such is the conclusion reached by Miss Alice P. Barrows of the Vocational Education Survey of the Public Education Association of New York City, who has been conducting for a year and a half an investigation with reference to the children who leave school to go to work.

She finds that there are no jobs for children under sixteen that they ought to take. Miss Barrows declares that children need training for the trades they are going to enter. They should not be blindly guided into jobs. It is useless to guide children when those who attempt to guide them know so little about modern complex trade conditions.

Before the survey was made, the average person assumed that the chief reason for children leaving school to go to work was economic pressure, the need to earn money for the family so as to keep the wolf from the door. Miss Barrows found out the reasons why children left school, and economic pressure is the least potent and the least frequent one. Pupils leave for a thousand and one reasons, and every pupil who leaves has more than one reason to give.

The most striking thing found was the apathy of parents and children toward school. More than two-thirds of the children and more than three-fourths of the parents had no conviction that it was worth while to spend more time in school. Parents could not understand that it was worth a sacrifice to keep their children there.

Children at work get little or no training. They are given jobs which do not develop them, but are merely dead routine. The years between fourteen and sixteen are worse than wasted; they are positively harmful in their effect. The investigators were impressed with the great dynamic force latent and struggling for expression in these boys and girls, the force of human adolescence, with its honesty, its fine courage, its high resolve, its determination to overcome every difficulty. Yet, these children were found to be restless in their work because they were not given the chance to express their growing powers, because their jobs did not allow them to think, act or develop. Moreover, Miss Barrows observed among these child workers an unvoiced but ever-present feeling of protest against the lack of individual attention and training, and against the military discipline and inexplicable tasks. They want a "job where they can learn."

These facts left the investigators with a feeling of skepticism about the desirability of guiding children into vocations.

The survey was organized to find answers, if possible, to the following questions: Why do children leave school in large numbers as soon as they are fourteen? What becomes of them? Will vocational guidance aid them? Said Miss Barrows:

> Vocational guidance is something that has always been practised, consciously or unconsciously, wherever there were growing children. If the school, the family and the shop were as closely related as they used to be in the days of the little red schoolhouse, vocational guidance would have remained one of the unconscious duties of the family.
>
> But with the complex growth of industrial life, the school, the family and the shop have all become strangers to one another, with the result that it is necessary that the welfare of the children become a subject of more conscious thought. The realization of this necessity by people all over the country has suddenly resulted in a widespread movement for vocational guidance.
>
> But what the children want is vocational training. The kernel of truth in this popular movement for vocational guidance is the need of vocational training for children. Vocational guidance should mean guidance for training, not guidance for jobs.

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Official Municipal Gazettes.[1]—The official gazette is one of the recognized means of supplying accurate information to citizens concerning the activities of a government. Of the leading nations of the world, the United States is perhaps the only one which does not publish such a journal of official information. In view of the absence of a federal gazette, it is a matter of considerable interest to find that about a score of our American cities have attempted to publish journals supplying information of a general nature concerning the operations of all the departments of the city government. In many cities certain departments or bureaus publish bulletins covering only the operations of their own division of the government, the bulletins of the health departments being the best known of this type.

In the Library Journal for April, 1911 (vol. 36, no. 4), is a two page bibliography by Clinton Rogers Woodruff entitled "Municipal Periodical Literature." This article lists six official journals of information published by municipal governments; the rest of the publications listed are unofficial, though relating to municipal activities.

The following is a partial list of cities which publish official journals of a general nature, together with the titles of the journals; additions and corrections will be gratefully received by the compiler:

Atlantic City, *Commission Government.*

Boston, Mass., *Monthly Bulletin;* issued by the statistics department.

Baltimore, Md., *Municipal Journal;* issued semi-monthly.

Burlington, Ia., *Proceedings of the City Council under the Commission Plan of Government;* monthly.

Centralia, Wash., *Monthly Summary Proceedings* and itemized statement in detail of the receipts and expenditures of the city commission.

Chattanooga, Tenn., *Municipal record;* issued monthly.

Colorado Springs, Colo., *Summary of Proceedings and Department Reports;* issued monthly.

Denver, Colo., *The City of Denver;* issued semi-monthly by the city and county of Denver. Successor to *Denver Municipal Facts.*

Houston, Texas, *Progressive Houston;* issued monthly.

Lexington, Ky., *The City of Lexington.*

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[1] Compiled by Henry J. Harris, Library of Congress, Washington.

Los Angeles, Cal., *Los Angeles Municipal News;* published weekly by the municipal newspaper commission from April 17, 1912 to April 9, 1913.

Memphis, Tenn., *Commission Government.*

New York, N.Y. *The City Record;* issued daily by the board of *City Record.*

Omaha, Nebr., *Municipal Statistics;* issued monthly by the department of accounts and finances.

Philadelphia, Pa., *Philadelphia;* issued monthly by the bureau of contracts and statistics; now discontinued.

San Francisco, Cal., *Municipal Record;* issued weekly.

San Jose, Cal., *Municipal Record;* issued monthly.

Seattle, Wash., *Municipal News.*

Spokane, Wash., *Official Gazette.*

Tacoma, Wash., *Municipal Bulletin;* issued monthly.

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"The Los Angeles Municipal News."—It is anybody's guess as to why a big city votes as it does, but the following reasons account for the repeal of the ordinance establishing the *Municipal News:*

1. Many people did not like the paper, as they are not much interested in municipal affairs, but prefer the sensationalism of the daily press.

2. After several years of progressive tendencies in our municipal political life, a rather marked reaction has been under way in the last year, and the reactionary sentiment rather singled out the *Municipal News* as one point of attack.

3. Owing to matters entirely outside the control of the present city administration, our taxes have been higher this year, with the result that a stronger anti-tax feeling exists than the city has experienced in many years. This sentiment resented the $36,000 annual appropriation for the *Municipal News,* as unnecessary expense to the city.

4. All six of the daily papers in town opposed the *Municipal News,* not only with editorial criticism, but with news column slurs throughout the entire year. Even the two progressive newspapers of the city, prior to election day marked their sample ballot in opposition to the *Municipal News.* Six metropolitan dailies were too much for our little weekly.

5. The question as it appeared on the ballot was presented in a negative form, which undoubtedly confused many voters. The *Municipal News* was established at a general election at which over 100,000 voters voted upon the question, and repealed at a special election at which about 39,755 voted.[1]

⁂

Cornell's New Course on Social and Civic Questions.—Cornell was the first of our universities and colleges to give formal instruction on the social problems that during the past few years have come to attract such wide spread attention. So it is natural that a group of Cornell graduates should have been the first to form a social and civic committee whose chief purpose is to put before the students at their alma mater the latest practical experience in the work of which they learned the theory while under-graduates. The faculty has met the committee more than half way and as a result a course on citizenship will be given next fall as part of the regular work in the College of Arts.

The wide scope of this course is indicated by the titles of the lectures which will be given the first year. The introductory lecture is the citizen and his community. Following this are: The citizen and the homes of the community, the citizen and the schools, the citizen and public health, the citizen and the recreation needs of the community, the citizen and the problems of poverty, the citizen and problems of crime, the citizen and labor problems, the citizen and problems of immigration, the citizen and the physical development of his community, the citizen and politics, the citizen and the church, the citizen and the press, and the citizen and social and civic organizations.

A number of the lectures will be given by Cornell graduates who are now actively engaged in social and civic work; Dr. Herman M. Biggs, member of Governor Sulzer's public health commission, Henry Bruère, director of the bureau of municipal research, Lee V. Hanmer of the Russell Sage Foundation, Franklin Mathews of the school of journalism at Columbia, Porter R. Lee, of the New York School of Philanthropy and John Ihlder, field secretary of the National Housing Association. The introductory lecture will be by Robert W. de Forest, a Yale graduate who has been a leader in so many forms of social and civic work that it would be useless to try to enumerate them. Clinton Rogers Woodruff, Pennsylvania, 1889, will close the course and drive home the points made by his predecessors. Among the other prominent speakers whose degrees were received at other colleges are Dr. Edward T. Devine, director of the New York School of Philanthropy, Schiff professor of social economy at Columbia and a director of the relief work in San Francisco after the earthquake and at present rendering similar service in the Ohio flood district, John M. Glenn, director of the Russell Sage Foundation, Prof. J. W. Jenks, for many years professor of political economy and politics at Cornell and a member of the United States immigration commission, and Munson A. Havens, secretary of the Cleveland Chamber of Commerce, which has earned the honorary title of chamber of citizenship.

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[1] From George H. Dunlop, the chairman of the municipal newspaper commisson.

John Ihlder.

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The Portland, Oregon, Survey.—A comprehensive survey of the educational system of the city has been undertaken by a committee appointed by a taxpayers' meeting. The work was commenced on April 7 and will continue until completed in the fall. The members of the survey are: Elwood P. Cubberly, director in charge; Frank E. Spaulding, who will cover instruction and courses of study; Fletcher B. Dressler, to whom had been assigned the subject of buildings and sanitation; J. H. Francis who will look after vocational training; Lewis M. Terman to whom has been assigned school hygiene and supervision; Edward C. Elliot, is the general consulting expert. Professor Cubberly is head of the department of education at Stanford; Professor Spaulding is superintendent of schools at Newton, Mass.; Mr. Dressler is an expert from the United States bureau of education; Mr. Francis has been superintendent of the Los Angeles schools since 1910, Dr. Elliot is director of the course for the training of teachers at the University of Wisconsin, and Professor Terman is associate professor of education at Stanford.

⁂

Philadelphia Plans Education of Municipal Employees.—In order to promote the advancement of municipal employees, Mayor Blankenburg, of Philadelphia, in coöperation with the superintendent of schools of the city, has selected a committee of eight members from the faculties of the high schools of the city to act as an advisory committee to give helpful counsel to municipal employees concerning the means and methods of educational improvement. A large number of municipal employees have already availed themselves of the opportunity and are being individually guided in courses of study of many grades and character including arithmetic, English, civil, mechanical and electrical engineering, chemistry, bacteriology, social science, accounting and scientific office management.

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The Leipzig Library.—As a quasi municipal enterprise the proposed library of German literature is worthy of note. It is to be established in Leipzig as a result of the combined efforts of the Saxon government, the city of Leipzig and the Börsenverein of German publishers. It is proposed to collect the whole literature of the German empire in German and in foreign languages issued from January 1, 1913. The buildings will be erected by the Saxon government at a cost of $714,000 on a site embracing 107,640 square feet, donated by the city of Leipzig. Title is to be in the Börsenverein, but the Saxon government and the city of Leipzig will each be represented in the administration and will each contribute towards the maintenance of the library.

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The Indiana Legislative Reference Department of the state library was made an independent bureau by the last general assembly and the appropriation was largely increased. The bureau is under the control of a board consisting of the governor, state librarian, president of the two state universities (Purdue and Indiana), and one additional member appointed by the governor. For this position Governor Ralston appointed Evans Woollen, president of the Fletcher Trust and Savings Co., of Indianapolis. John A. Lapp was chosen director of the bureau, Ethel Cleland librarian, and Charles Kettleborough statistician and draftsman. Prof. Frank G. Bates of the university of Indiana will continue his work in charge of the municipal reference division of the bureau.

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The Baldwin Prize for 1913 has been awarded to Miss Sybel Edelweiss Lougheed, a student at Radcliffe College, and to Edward A. Lawlor of Harvard. The prize this year was for the best essay on the subject of "The Best Sources of City Revenue," The judges were George C. Sikes, secretary of the Chicago bureau of efficiency, and Dr. LeGrand Powers of the United States census bureau. It is the first time a woman has won the prize.

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School Surveys.—The New York bureau of municipal research has devoted a number of weekly bulletins to arousing public interest in school affairs and the encouragement of school surveys. Among the cities where such surveys have been or are to be made are St. Paul, Portland, Ore., Milwaukee, Atlanta. Ohio has provided for a statewide survey.

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"The City of Lexington" is the title of a monthly paper issued by the city of Lexington, Kentucky. Volume 1, no. 1, appeared on April 15. In its salutatory it declares:

> With this issue *The City of Lexington* joins the ranks of municipal publications which are rapidly growing in numbers with the hope that it may contribute its small part to the general fund of knowledge and experience which is to make city government throughout the land more efficient.

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"The Municipality" for April appears in enlarged form and with a considerable number of new features. This magazine is the official organ of the League of Wisconsin Municipalities and is edited by Ford H. MacGregor, secretary of the League, and a member of the advisory editorial board of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW.

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"The Nation's Business" published by the Chamber of Commerce of the United States appears in a new and enlarged form. It is much more attractive and effective.

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A Selected List of Municipal and Civic Books has been published by The American City (93 Nassau Street, New York). It is an interesting publication of 56 pages and can be had upon application.

VII. SOCIAL AND MISCELLANEOUS

Public Health Notes.—*A decline in the general death rate* is reported from many cities for 1912 and will probably be shown in the state reports and for the whole registration area when the vital statistics become available. Even more notable, it seems probable, will be the 1912 typhoid record, which for many cities was markedly low. Typhoid in 1910 was high in many cities, but its steady decline since then has brought a few American cities down well toward the low level of progressive European cities. An important contributing factor in the falling general and typhoid rate is given the remainder of the space available for public health notes in this number of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW.

Milk is receiving a large amount of attention from health boards, civic organizations, and individuals in various parts of the country. Naturally the greatest progress in the municipal control of the public milk supply is being made in those cities which under their charter or else under general state legislation have ample powers to enact and enforce such milk ordinances as seem to them necessary and expedient. Unfortunately there is a woeful lack of such power in some states. Thus Massachusetts, in many ways a pioneer in public health measures, has not yet given its cities power over so obviously important a matter as insisting that milk for house consumption shall be sold in nothing but sealed glass bottles. The question went to the state supreme court a few years ago, which decided that Boston had no right to insist on such a measure. For several years past the Massachusetts legislature has refused to pass milk legislation which has been strongly urged in the interests of public health. The opposition springs from the agricultural interests, the milk contractors and from those who are opposed to increasing the powers of the state board of health, in which it has been proposed to vest certain powers of central control.

The New York legislature of 1913 was also unfriendly to extending public control of the milk supply. It refused to pass bills containing the substance of the proposals discussed before the conference held under the auspices of the New York Milk Committee on February 5.[1]

New York City continues to make progress in the control of its milk supply. Besides inspection on the dairy farms, at shipping points and in the city it began in 1912 to require all milk sold in the city to be divided into three grades and labelled accordingly: Grade A, *recommended* for Infants and Children, subdivided into (1) certified or guaranteed milk; (2) inspected milk, raw; (3) selected milk, pasteurized. Grade B, *recommended* for adults, subdivided the same as (2) and (3) above. Grade C, for cooking and manufacturing purposes only (i.e. so *recommended*) includes (1) raw milk not conforming to grades A or B; condensed skimmed milk and condensed or concentrated milk. It does not appear that there is anything to prevent a purchaser of milk for home consumption from using Grades B or C for infants and children or Grade C for adult consumption, but if he does so it will be knowingly and at his own risk. Milk sold for immediate consumption, as in restaurants, etc., must be either grade A or B. Copies of the New York milk rules, which cover many other essential points besides grading and labelling, may be obtained from the department of health, Centre and Walker streets. A valuable article on the sanitary control of local milk supplies through local official agencies, by Ernst J. Lederle, commissioner of health, New York City, appeared in the *Medical Record* (New York) for December 14, 1912. As regards New York City, it may be added that its right to inspect milk at the point of production in the country and its right to require milk consumers to cleanse milk containers before they are returned to the milk dealer have both been upheld recently by the higher courts of the state.[1]

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[1] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. II., p. 313.

Important studies of the milk supply of Rochester, N. Y., have been made recently by Dr. John R. Williams, secretary of the milk commission of Monroe County. In *The Common Good* (Rochester) for March, 1913, Dr. Williams tells why our milk is going to cost more. To sum up his conclusion in one of his own sentences: "This study leads to the conclusion that the fundamental error which has defeated the endeavors of sanitarians in their efforts to procure clean milk is mainly economic in character and accordingly amenable only to economic solution." He also points out the gross common error of buying milk with no regard for anything except bulk. Purity and nutritive value should be regarded and paid for accordingly.

The Civic Club of Philadelphia (1300 Spruce street) has recently called attention to the same general points (as well as some others) as are emphasized in the last paragraph,[2] in the course of its investigation of the cost of living series. It asks householders nineteen questions about the price, quality and other features of the milk which they use daily

Regulations calling for better milk houses (stone, brick or concrete) at the country dairies from which Pittsburgh gets its milk supply have led to the sort of talk regarding a probable milk famine which often follows a serious effort to improve any milk supply. Such famines never materialize. At the same time milk consumers should realize that the actual producer of milk gets only a small percentage of the retail price of the commodity and that for the most part milk prices of today are based on milk production under insanitary conditions.

A milk quarantine was declared by the health authorities of New Orleans, against milk from dairies near Mobile, Ala., in May of this year. Proposed stricter regulations governing the milk supply of Mobile led the local dealers there to threaten to send their milk to New Orleans, thus leaving Mobile short. Dr. Dan T. McCall, health officer of Mobile, wired the fact to Dr. W. T. O'Reilly, of the New Orleans board of health, with a request for coöperation, which was granted in the manner stated.

A Cleveland, Ohio, regulation prohibiting the sale of milk at retail otherwise than in glass bottles, has been declared reasonable by the circuit court of Cuyahoga County, in a suit brought against the Board of Health of Cleveland.[3]

Milwaukee, Wis., has won a notable legal victory in a unanimous decision of the United States Supreme Court upholding its right to exclude from the city milk from tuberculous cows, to inspect dairy herds, to insist on the tuberculin test, and to order cows found suffering from tuberculosis to be killed. Apparently the decision is broad enought to cover the general right of dairy inspection and milk regulation as a condition precedent to its sale within a city. The court held that the ordinance was a valid exercise of the police power of the city, under its charter from the state. The ordinance had previously been sustained by the Wisconsin courts. Apparently the decision will be of general application throughout the United States—wherever cities and towns have been granted legislative power to control their milk supplies. If so, it is one of the most important court decisions affecting public health ever handed down.

A new or at least unusual element in the country-wide campaign for pure milk is federal inspection and prosecution. In May it was reported that agents of the United States department of agriculture had detected many dairymen in southern Illinois shipping impure and adulterated milk to St. Louis. Analyses in government laboratories are said to have shown abnormally high bacterial contents. Most of the dealers involved pleaded guilty and were fined $10 and costs on the submission of evidence by the government.

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[1] See *Bull. Dept. of Health of New York City* February and March, 1913.

[2] Leaflet III, Cost and quality of milk.

[3] January *Bull. Ohio State Board of Health.*

M. N. Baker.[1]

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School Lunches in New York City.—The New York School Lunch Committee has decided to ask the board of education to establish lunches in all schools, the equipment to be furnished by the board and the direction to be in the hands of a committee appointed by the board to serve without pay. In 1911–12 lunches were served in seven schools with results that make the committee favor their extension. About 12 per cent of the pupils at each school attend. The lunches are of the penny an article variety with the provision that each child shall spend the first penny for a bowl of soup. The report claims that there has been a noticeable improvement in scholarship and health in the children who take advantage of the lunches and that they are especially necessary in cases where parents are unable to provide nourishing lunches from home because of poverty or employment during the day. The children are kept from the streets with their invitation to truancy and from the penny push carts whose offerings are not nourishing.

It seems impossible to carry on the work without a deficit. A satisfactory lunch costs more than the children are paying and a rise in price has been found to result in so great a falling off in sales that the cost is greatly increased and the benefits practically lost. However the problem is not one of cost for the deficit is insignificant in comparison with the total cost of the child's education and the efficiency of schooling is much increased. The problem seems rather to serve a proper lunch, keep the cost within reasonable limits, and then to charge enough to keep it from seeming a charity and at the same time not discourage its use.

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Massachusetts Civic League Fighting the "Three Decker."—Throughout the state three-flat apartment houses, popularly known as "three deckers," are found in such numbers that they may well be called the "Massachusetts type" of tenement. They are the result of attempts on the part of builders to escape the requirements of the law and ordinances of the various communities which aim at the preservation of decent living conditions in houses containing more than four families. The Massachusetts Civic League is urgently supporting a measure now before the state legislature regulating the further build-of wooden three deckers which are at the present time not only an evasion of the law and an exceedingly dangerous fire risk but also subversive of good morals, good health and wholesome life. The aim of the bill is to so guard the construction of each room, the relation of each house to the lot on which it stands, and all alterations and maintenance, that the house may at all times be fit for human occupancy.

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Philadelphia Civic Club Busy Exploring the Cost of Living.—The Civic Club of Philadelphia is conducting a comprehensive study of the cost of living. Through ward branches and a series of question pamphlets put directly into the hands of householders, the club hopes to obtain enough definite information respecting prevailing methods of purchasing household supplies, sanitary conditions in supply market places, prices and advancement in prices in different sections of the city, and other data that will enable it to formulate a constructive program to improve present conditions. Already a pamphlet survey of the situation with respect to meat and butter has been made.[1]

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[1] President, board of health, Montclair, N. J.

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Dutch Bureau of Social Advice.—Suggested by the need of workingmen for a specific and inexpensive place where they could get advice on practical subjects, the Central Bureau of Social Advice, of Amsterdam, was created in 1898 with three definite objects at the basis of the organization: (1) To give information regarding institutions and regulations in the interest of workingmen; (2) to collect and assort data for that purpose; (3) to form a library. The organization began with about 150 subscribers and with total receipts in the first year of about $600. The total number of subscribers is now about 700 and the receipts $4,200. Information is given not only to subscribers but to anybody that asks for it. A fee is asked unless the inquirer is absolutely unable to pay. Some of the subjects upon which advice and information have been given are coöperation, savings, loans, pensions. illness, burial funds, people's lodging houses, labor contracts, regulations in commercial enterprises, measures against unemployment, municipal-workmen regulations, minimum salaries and maximum hours regulations. When the question is of importance it is submitted to experts before an answer is given.

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Manhattan Recreation Census.—In order to settle a controversy started by a statement of a city official that the people do not care for the recreation facilities furnished by the city but prefer to make use of the commercialized amusements found at dance halls, pool rooms, and moving picture shows, the People's Institute, through its department of recreations, is planning to take a census at intervals of two months of all people engaged on Saturday afternoon and evening in any sort of amusement. The count will include all children playing in the streets and all children and adults at parks and playgrounds, moving picture shows, pool rooms, bowling alleys and dance halls. One thousand census takers will be put into the field.

⁂

Massachusetts Civic League Advocating Sunday Play.—The Massachusetts civic league has introduced a bill in the state legislature the aim of which is to make it lawful to be present at and to take part in games, play and recreation on the Lord's Day after one o'clock in the afternoon, subject to such regulations and conditions as the local governments may prescribe; but it is provided by the bill that no charge directly or indirectly shall be made for the presence at or view of or participation in any such games, play or recreation. The provisions of the bill, if passed by the legislature, become applicable in a local community upon acceptance by a majority of the voters at an election to be called to settle the question.

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New York City Orchestra.—Sometime ago New York City appropriated $10,000 for providing concerts in public school buildings throughout the city, and as a result the city orchestra was organized and gave its first concert on March 2. The concerts of the orchestra have been growing in popularity and attract especially large crowds on Sunday afternoon.

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[1] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. ii, p. 289.

VIII. PERSONAL MENTION

Chief Kohler's Dismissal.—On March 17 Frederick Kohler, widely known as the "golden rule chief of police" was dismissed from the service. The dismissal was the outcome of his trial before the civil service commission on charges of (1) conduct unbecoming an officer and a gentlemen, (2) conduct subversive to the good order and discipline of the police department, and (3) gross immorality,—charges based on three alleged clandestine visits to a private home during the absence of the occupant's husband. The defense was vigorously contested, Kohler testifying in his own behalf and summoning more than a score of witnesses, but without avail. Kohler's dismissal was noteworthy as showing the high standard of personal conduct demanded of Cleveland officials even in a field of action where many communities are wont to condone personal misconduct so long as departmental efficiency is maintained.

The civil service commission in passing sentence took occasion to commend Kohler's official conduct, stating that it regarded "Frederick Kohler as a police officer of exceptional intelligence and ability," and calling attention to the fact that not even a suspicion of dishonesty or corruption had been held against Kohler or his subordinates.

Entering the department as a patrolman in 1889, Kohler was rapidly promoted and was appointed chief of Police by Tom L. Johnson in 1903. A recognized master of criminology, he was once characterized by Theodore Roosevelt as the "best chief of police in America." His "golden rule" policy which was widely heralded throughout the country was, in short, to make as few arrests as possible. In practice, its main features consisted in taking intoxicated men to their homes rather than to the police station and in warning first offenders in small matters. The policy was not applied to known criminals nor in connection with serious offenses. While the wisdom of the rule has been subjected at times to harsh criticism, on the whole it has worked well in Cleveland.

Kohler's successor as chief is W. S. Rowe, who has been connected with the police department of Cleveland for thirty-three years, and has served as inspector of police since 1903.

E. M. Hall, Jr.[1]

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Dr. Werner Hegemann.—For the purpose of promoting a wider knowledge of town planning and especially the achievements of European countries along this line the People's Institute of New York arranged with Dr. Hegemann of Berlin, to visit America and make surveys of town planning needs and deliver lectures on the subject throughout the country. Dr. Hegemann, one of the best known experts in Germany upon this subject, is now publishing a three-volume work upon town planning. He promoted and was secretary of the Berlin Town Planning Exhibit of 1909 as well as that of Düsseldorf.

Dr. Hegemann arrived in this country in March last and spent from a week to ten days in the cities of Philadelphia, Baltimore, Syracuse, Cleveland and Sacramento, making surveys and suggestions as to the possibilities of town development and planning especially along the lines of transportation and suburban development. He also lectured in New York, Wilmington, South Williamsport, Pa., Rochester, Columbus, Hamilton, Ohio, Indianapolis, Minneapolis, Davenport, Chicago and Denver.

Dr. Hegemann made substantial contributions to the transportation problem in Chicago, Philadelphia and New York by emphasizing its fundamental importance to the whole subject of town planning and urged the construction of better and newer types of elevated structures in preference to subway construction. He cited the examples of Berlin and Paris, where the elevated has been made both beautiful and practically noiseless in comparison with the elevateds which have been erected in New York and Chicago. He will be in California in June and then returns to New York, where he plans to remain until September studying American town planning and transportation conditions. After that he leaves for South America on a trip around the world for a world wide study of this subject.

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[1] Assistant secretary, Cleveland Civic League.

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Frank J. Goodnow, Eaton professor of administrative law and municipal science in Columbia University, on April 5 sailed for Pekin where he will act as expert legal adviser to the government of the Republic of China. He will be consulted in the very important work of drafting the new Chinese constitution. The appointment, which runs for three years, came indirectly through Dr. C. W. Eliot. While visiting China about a year ago, Dr. Eliot was informed that, seriously as the need of such an adviser was felt, in the disturbed condition of Europe application to any particular state would be apt to arouse jealousies. On his advice a request was made through our state department to the Carnegie Endowment for the recommendation of a man familiar with the republican governments of France and the United States. Professor Goodnow brings to his new duties unusual qualifications. As a student of government and a publicist his reputation stands high both in Europe and America. He is the author of numerous works on administrative law, municipal government, and other subjects. His expert authority has been recognized by various appointments in the public service. He was a member of the committee to revise the New York City charter in 1900–1901, of President Taft's commission on efficiency and economy, and of the committee of the National Civic Federation on public ownership in 1905–1906. More recently he conducted, with Dr. F. C. Howe, an official investigation into the public school system of New York City. He has been an active member of the National Municipal League and the American Political Science Association. Professor Goodnow graduated from Amherst in 1879 and from the Columbia law school three years later. He holds the degree of LL.D. from Amherst, Columbia, and Harvard.

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J. G. Schmidlapp of Cincinnati, a well known member of the National Municipal League, spent a considerable sum in the building of two groups of houses in Norwood and one in Oakley near Cincinnati, with the idea that they should be rented to workingmen at much less than the prevailing figures and still pay a net profit of 5 per cent on the investment. According to the Chicago Tribune the experiment has been a success. Mr. Schmidlapp is also engaged in a pioneer experiment in another direction. In memory of his daughter he has founded a bureau for women and girls, which he endowed with a fund of $500,000. Under its direction financial assistance is provided to allow young women to finish their education. Work is found for applicants and an investigation made of the industrial experience and capabilities of each girl.

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Hon. George McAneny, president of the borough of Manhattan, will deliver the Dodge lectures on the responsibilities of citizenship at Yale for the year 1913–14. The title of his lectures will be "Municipal Citizenship." Those who have previously given the lectures are Governor Baldwin of Connecticut, former Ambassador Bryce, Justice Hughes, Lyman Abbott, Elihu Root, the late Bishop Potter, the late Justice Brewer and Hon. William Howard Taft.

⁂

Prof. Augustus Raymond Hatton of Western Reserve University has taken a prominent part in various charter movements in Ohio cities. He is a member of the Cleveland commission and has spoken in a number of places. He has also drafted a bill to carry out the home rule amendment embodying three optional forms of city government.

*

Hornell Hart has been elected civic secretary of the Milwaukee City Club. He is a graduate of Oberlin and a postgraduate in economics and sociology at Madison. He is a son of Hastings H. Hart of the Russell Sage Foundation and a nephew of Prof. Albert Bushnell Hart, formerly chairman of the executive committee of the National Municipal League.

*

Frank A. Hutchins, to whom perhaps more than to any other man, Wisconsin owes its library development, was the guest of honor at a recent dinner in Madison at which he was presented with a testimonial in the shape of a beautifully bound volume of letters from over one hundred friends.

*

Norman Hapgood and associates have acquired possession of Harper's Weekly. Mr. Hapgood is deeply interested in municipal affairs and for some years was a member of the council of the National Municipal League.

*

Charles G. Haines, professor of political science at Whitman College and secretary of the League of Pacific Northwest Municipalities, has been made an associate editor of *Pacific Municipalities* published in San Francisco.

*

Prof. Charles E. Merriam of the University of Chicago was elected on the Progressive ticket to the board of aldermen at the election held in April.

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Dr. Herman G. James of the department of government in the University of Texas has been appointed a member of the advisory editorial board of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW.

*

Lewis R. Works has been elected president of the Los Angeles City Club as a result of a preferential election.

DEPARTMENT OF LEGISLATION AND JUDICIAL DECISIONS[1]

Edited by John A. Lapp

Legislative Reference Department of the Indiana State Library

Richard W. Montague, Esq., Portland, Ore.

In charge of Judicial Decisions

Recent Housing Legislation.—This phrase in the United States should properly be applied to legislation passed since 1910, for at that time we entered upon what was virtually a new era. During the ten years preceding there had been some interest in housing betterment, and in a few of the largest cities this interest had been keen. But it so happened that the city which took the lead in housing betterment during the first decade of the century, New York, had in its long, solidly built rows of tall tenement houses a condition peculiar to itself. Consequently its reformers came to look upon housing as practically synonymous with tenement housing and the law they secured in 1900, the most effective legislation up to that time enacted in America, dealt only with buildings housing three or more families.

New York's successful fight attracted national attention and many other cities in the country were inspired to follow. In some cities, as in Chicago where the definition of a tenement house was made to cover buildings housing two or more families, some of the standards established in New York were raised. But in many of the smaller cities which imitated the metropolis not only were New York standards not raised, they were in some instances distinctly lowered. Perhaps the most unfortunate feature of this flattery, however, was the spreading throughout the country of an impression that the tall tenement house was in some degree a sign that the city possessing it thereby demonstrated to the world that it was growing to metropolitan proportions. Just how much this impression was responsible for the increase of multiple dwellings it is, of course, impossible to say, but there is no doubt that it had considerable effect not only in stimulating tenement house building but also in blinding public spirited citizens to the fundamental defects of these multiple dwellings and to their bad effects upon the community.

But there was one good result of this imitation. Those who drafted legislation for the smaller cities or backed the investigations designed to show the need for legislation made frequent demands upon the New York tenement house committee for advice and assistance. These demands finally convinced the committee, especially Robert W. deForest and Lawrence Veiller, that the problems of the smaller cities should be studied in the light of their own needs, not handled as if they were merely smaller editions of New York problems. For this purpose the National Housing Association was organized whose members and directors represent all parts of the country. At the same time Mr. Veiller drafted a model tenement house law following somewhat the lines of the New York law which he had drafted ten years before but embodying also the results of his years of experience as an administrator of the New York law and as director of the committee which has aided in defending that law in the legislature and the courts.

Needless to say this model law sets higher standards than were possible in New York, for the smaller cities have still the opportunity to defend themselves against abuses which in New York have become entrenched. Louisville, was the first to use the model law as the basis for its legislation and on March 21, 1910, Governor Wilson signed it. Louisville, however, still thought only of tenement houses. To Columbus, Ohio, belongs the credit of having really inaugurated the new era by enacting in March, 1911, a housing code which applies to small houses as well as to tenements. The Columbus code was the result of an investigation by a local committee directed by Otto W. Davis which showed that while Columbus had bad tenement house conditions it had in far greater quantity bad small house conditions. Mr. Veiller was called into consultation and as a result the Columbus housing code, based upon the model law but made to apply to all classes of dwellings, was drafted and finally passed by the city council.

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[1] A review of the important features of state legislation affecting municipalities for the year 1913 will be published in the October issue of the National Municipal Review.

Since then housing workers have had before their eyes a new ideal. Their purpose now is not simply to make tenement houses as harmless as possible, but is to make and keep our cities what most of them claim to be, cities of homes. This does not mean that in all cases they have been able to live up to their ideal. The tenement house tradition has become too firmly established to be overthrown at once, especially in communities where tenement houses already exist in considerable numbers. So California in 1909 and 1911 and Connecticut in 1911 passed tenement house laws which marked considerable advances over previous legislation, but left them far short of the mark set by Columbus. Even the Massachusetts law for towns (1912) applies only to buildings sheltering three or more families, but the proposed Massachusetts law for cities now before the legislature raises this to two families. In all these states such legislation is looked upon merely as a first step in controlling an abuse of great magnitude. San Francisco since the fire had become a city of wooden tenements; Hartford and other Connecticut cities had followed the evil examples of New York and Boston; Massachusetts is famous—or infamous—for the three deckers it has permitted to fill its cities and towns.

But there is evidence that the new ideal is potent. In spite of tradition and of opposition based upon a misconception of the effect a housing code will have on certain private interests. Duluth succeeded (1912) in securing a code similar to that of Columbus, and Kansas City has drafted one of the same kind which is now before its municipal legislature. Cleveland and Detroit also have drafted or are putting the finishing touches on ordinances. The Indiana legislature has just passed a new law which will apply to all cities of the state. Pittsburgh (1912) has passed local ordinances which greatly strengthen the older state law and apply it to small houses. Seattle is drafting a new code. Schenectady drafted an ordinance, but has also decided to join the other five second class cities of New York state in working for a state law which will apply to them all. This law is now being drafted.

Could this brief statement have been written a few months later it is safe to prophesy that the list of existing recent housing legislation would be considerably longer, for there were never before so many states and cities working for housing regulation. But as it is enough has been done to show that new standards must be set by the city which would keep in the vanguard; that in spite of old habits of mind housing legislation in the future must take in all kinds of dwellings, not merely that which from practical necessity was singled out by the early reformers.

John Ihlder.

*

Noxious Weeds.—Legislation governing the removal of noxious weeds from property exists in some form or other in most of our large cities. A few of the very largest municipalities, however, seem to have considered such measures unnecessary. New York and Boston have no ordinance at all on the subject. In Chicago, weeds are cut by the city only when they interfere with the sidewalk. A state law of 1872 providing for the destruction of the Canadian thistle was amended in 1892 to cover all noxious weeds, but this was declared unconstitutional by the courts in 1906.

With the above exceptions the large cities generally have adopted measures looking to the control of the weed nuisance. Indianapolis, Los Angeles, Louisville, New Orleans, St. Louis, Kansas City, Cincinnati, Atlanta, Buffalo and Salt Lake City are cities that have ordinances on the subject. Seattle has a good ordinance applying to thistles. In Minneapolis, the weed question is dealt with in a state law most thoroughly Pittsburgh is given the power to cause "putrid substances, whether animal or vegetable, to be removed from any lot" and Milwaukee is empowered by its charter to "cause noxious weeds to be abated as other public nuisances."

The Indianapolis ordinance, adopted in 1910, affords a good example of the city ordinances providing for weed removal by the city in case of failure so to do by the property owner. The ordinance declares the growth of weeds and other rank vegetation on rea' estate to be injurious to public health, and a nuisance. Owners of real estate must cut and remove all weeds on or before July 1 of each year. In the event of failure to comply with the regulations the board of health will have the work done and the cost thereof will be assessed against the owner in the same manner as the cost of street sweeping and sprinkling. No notice need be sent to the property owner, but the weeds may be cut by the board of health any time after July 1. Violation entails also a fine of not more than $25.

The ordinance adopted in Salt Lake City in August, 1912, is a good example of another class. By its provisions, weeds higher than one foot are declared to be a nuisance. The penalty is a fine of not more than $50.

New Orleans and Louisville each have two ordinances on the subject of weed removal, there being in both cases separate regulations for weeds in lots and weeds in sidewalks and gutters. In Louisville the two ordinances are enforced by different authorities. Los Angeles has a penal and a civil ordinance, the latter having recently been enacted to provide for the removal of the weeds by the city and the assessment of the cost thereof against the property owner.

Enforcement of the provisions of weed ordinances is delegated to various authorities. In Buffalo the matter is entrusted to the deputy street commissioner; in Kansas City, the street cleaning department. Health authorities are in charge of enforcement in Indianapolis, Pittsurgh, Atlanta and Louisville (as regards lots); the board of public. works in New Orleans, Los Angeles and Louisville (as regards sidewalks and gutters); the police department in Salt Lake City, Cincinnati and Seattle. In Riverside, California, a small city that has adopted weed legislation, the inspection is done by the board of park commissioners, violations being reported to the superintendent of streets, who then must take action.

The most effective weed ordinances are those which provide some way for the removal of weeds by municipal authorities in case the property owner fails to do so himself. The legislation adopted in Buffalo, Indianapolis, Los Angeles and the state of Minnesota provides that in case of failure of the property owner to comply therewith the city may have the cutting done and the cost assessed against the owner as a tax. In Kansas City under these conditions the weeds are cut by the municipality and a bill sent to the owner or occupant of the premises; this city, however seems to have been denied the right of assessing the cost. Pittsburgh and Detroit have this power of assessment, but it does not appear to be used in the former city, and in the latter it was found to be cheaper for the city to cut the weeds in the first place at its own expense, rather than to undertake inspection and the sending of notices to owners of property. This applied particularly to the non-resident owner. At any rate, Detroit makes no use of its powers in this direction. The ordinance recently adopted in Los Angeles contains most elaborate provisions regarding the assessment and collection of weed taxes.

In some cases a certain date is specified before which weeds must be cut. In Indianapolis, as mentioned before, this date is July 1; Los Angeles has two dates, May 15 and August 31. In Seattle notice is given each May in the daily press reminding the public of the necessity of removing thistles. In other instances there is no such specific date, it merely being provided that at any time, in case of violation, notice shall be sent to the property owner. Such regulations are incorporated in the ordinances of Kansas City, New Orleans, Atlanta and Louisville. In Minneapolis, the state law provides that notice shall be sent on complaint; this is also the case in Cincinnati. In Riverside, California, it is the duty of the park commissioners to make the complaint to the street superintendent, who then must send the notice.

In those cases where the city authorities are allowed to have the weed cutting done and assessment made, it is easy to deal with the out-of-town property owner. The Minnesota law provides for personal service of notice whenever possible, but that "if there be no person in the county on whom service of notice can properly be made, of which the certificate of the officer serving such notice shall be prima facie evidence, the subsequent procedure shall be the same as though service had been made." The experience of Detroit with the out-of-town or non-resident property owner in this respect has been mentioned previously.

Andrew Linn Bostwick.[1]

Quiet Zones Near Hospitals..—Noise regulations are usually included in a number of ordinances which deal with occupations and actions involving such noises. It is evident that in these cases a compilation of a city's regulations of this character involves a great deal of labor. The comparative scarcity of comprehensive single laws on the noise question lends interest to the matter of establishment of quiet zones near hospitals. In the case of the cities having such regulations we find excellent examples of general ordinances dealing with all unnecessary noises, applying, of course, only in the immediate neighborhood of such institutions. In some cases the zones of quiet are automatically created within a specified distance of all hospitals, while other cities have enacted laws that are merely permissive, authorizing the establishment of these quiet zones when desirable.

The ordinance in force in Chicago is a good example of the mandatory type:

> *Zones of quiet established.* There is hereby created and established a zone of quiet in all territory embraced within a distance of 250 feet of every hospital in the city of Chicago.
>
> *Signs to be posted.* It shall be the duty of the commissioner of public works to place, or cause to be placed, on lampposts or some other conspicuous place, on every street or streets on which any hospital may be situated, and at a distance of not less than 250 feet, in either direction, from such hospital, signs or placards displaying the words, NOTICE —ZONE OF QUIET.
>
> *Disturbing noises—nuisance—penalty.* The making, causing or permitting to be made of any unnecessary noise, or the playing of itinerant musicians, upon the public streets, avenues or alleys within any such zone of quiet, which disturbs or which may tend to disturb the peace and quiet of any of the inmates of any hospital located therein, is declared to be a nuisance, and is prohibited.
>
> Every person who shall be guilty of a violation of any of the provisions of this section shall be subject to a fine of not less than two dollars nor more than fifty dollars for each offense.[1]

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[1] Municipal reference librarian, St. Louis Public Library.

[1] 1911 Code, p. 789.

The ordinance in force in Cincinnati is almost identical with the above, except the placing of the signs is the duty of the director of public service.

New York has an ordinance that may be taken as typical of the permissive type:

> The several borough presidents are authorized to erect, within their discretion, on lamp-posts, or, in the absence of lamp-posts, on such posts as they may find occasion to erect, at corners of intersecting streets, avenues or thoroughfares on which may be located a hospital, lying-in asylum, sanatorium or other institution reserved for the treatment of the sick, a sign or signs displaying the words NOTICE—HOSPITAL STREET, and such other warning or admonition to pedestrians or drivers to refrain from making any or such noises or fast driving as may tend to disturb the peace and quietude of any or all of the inmates of any such institution.
>
> Any person guilty of making any unnecessary noise or a failure to drive at a speed not faster than a walk on any of the streets, avenues or thoroughfares which have hereunder been designated as "hospital streets" and for which such warning signs have been displayed shall, upon conviction or upon a confession of guilt, be fined in a sum not exceeding ten dollars ($10).[1]

Buffalo has an ordinance that is practically the same as that of New York, except the health commissioner is empowered to establish the quiet zones.

Cleveland, by ordinance of March 14, 1910, provides for quiet zones within 250 feet of hospitals. In Louisville, an ordinance (1911) makes any unnecessary noise unlawful within 200 feet of any hospital or infirmary, and authorizes those in charge of such institutions to erect warning signs if they wish to. In Milwaukee, two ordinances are pending. One provides for regular hospital zones of quiet, and the other empowers the health commissioner to declare a quiet zone, erecting the necessary signs, within 100 feet of any building in which a person is dangerously ill—an attempt to apply quiet zone regulations to private houses in which there is sickness.

ANDREW LINN BOSTWICK.[2]

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Creating Residential and Industrial Zones.—Owners of residence property in our cities incur loss because no home neighborhood is safe from the invasion by commercial or manufacturing concerns that reduce the value of the surrounding property for residence uses. This has a tendency to produce a marked instability in values and cause those investing their savings in homes or flat buildings to be deprived of the profitable use of their investments.

A committee appointed in Chicago to consider the question of protecting residential districts from such encroachments has drafted an appropriate bill so amending the state, cities and villages act as to give the city authorities full power in the premises. It has been approved by the city council and recommended by that body to the legislature for passage.

Under this bill power is given the city council to "establish and create exclusively residential districts, to prohibit the erection therein of buildings other than residences; to prescribe the general character of residence buildings to be erected in such districts, and to prohibit the carrying on of any business in such districts except upon the consent of a majority of the property owners, measured by street frontage; to direct the location and regulate the construction and maintenance of factories, manufacturing or business establishments, and stores, in residence districts in which a majortiy of the street frontage is used exclusively for residence purposes."

The Minneapolis council on February 28 and April 11, passed ordinances classifying and designating certain buildings, business occupations, industries and enterprises as business industries and defining and designating certain districts in the city as industrial and residential districts, within which such buildings, occupations or enterprises may or may not be maintained or carried on.

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[1] Ord. app. July 2, 1907, Code 1912, p. 58.

[2] St. Louis Municipal Reference Library.

Frederick Rex.[1]

* * *

The Problem of Social Vice.—It is now little more than two years when the report of the Chicago vice commission was made public. The very first paragraph of the report sharply demands the repression of public prostitution in the name of parenthood and childhood and the physical and moral integrity of future generations. It is only since the publication of this report that there has been a marked awakening of the public conscience as to the meaning of this grave and terrible problem, challenging alike the existence of the home and the stability of our social system.

This awakened interest is easily deciphered in the ordinances passed and measures introduced endeavoring to lessen or repress commercialized vice and the concomitant evils attending it. Commissions to investigate the traffic in women have been formed or appointed in a number of cities, notably, New York, Chicago, Philadelphia, Washington, Minneapolis and Portland, Ore. Even a great national political party has entered the lists and by its pronouncement in favor of a minimum wage law for women has sought to render less possible the prospect of the daughters of the poor becoming the rich man's sport and plaything.

The Minneapolis council passed an ordinance on October 25, 1912, creating a public morals commission consisting of nine citizens appointed by the president of the council, this commission to investigate the moral conditions and social vice existing in the city and to submit a report on the same to the mayor and the council every three months, or oftener, with such recommendations as will promote public morals. The new police ordinance passed by the Chicago council December 30, 1912, fixes the responsibility for "the supervision of the strict enforcement of all laws and ordinances pertaining to all matters affecting public morals" upon the shoulders of a second deputy superintendent of police who "shall not be a member of the police force." In addition, its municipal court has recently established a branch known as the morals court for the adjudication of all cases arising from the social evil. The select committee of the Chicago council appointed to investigate the social evil, in a preliminary report, dated May 5, recommends among other things, constant repression with a view to total annihilation and the utter elimination of commercialized and segregated vice.

Portland, Ore., on October 23, 1912, passed two ordinances directed at the evil. The aim of the first ordinance is to provide a keener sense of stewardship toward the community for the proper conduct of property by its owners by requiring all buildings used as hotels, apartment, rooming, lodging, boarding and tenement houses or saloons, to have placed on the same a plate bearing the name of the owner, of such size and distinctness as will render it easily legible to persons passing along the street. The other ordinance provides for the regulation of hotels, rooming and lodging houses for the purpose of increasing the hazard under which an immoral landlord may attempt to traffic in immorality. Proprietors of such buildings are requested to give a surety bond of $1000 to the city as a guarantee for the faithful observance of the ordinance, such bond to be forfeited after a second conviction for the violation of the ordinance in the municipal court.

A more complete ordinance than the Portland ordinance providing for the placing of name plates on the front of buildings was introduced in the New York board of aldermen March 19, 1912, by Alderman Stapleton, and referred to the committee on laws and legislation. Thus far the committee has failed to make a report on it.

Frederick Rex.

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[1] Municipal Reference Library, Chicago, Ill.

State Supervision of Municipal Accounts, Under Existing Legislative Enactments Prior to 1913*

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
STATE	SUPERVISORY CONTROL	OFFICIAL TITLE OF EXAMINING OFFICER	STATE OFFICES	STATE INSTITUTIONS	COUNTIES	TOWNSHIPS	OTHER MUNICIPALITIES	INSTALLATION OF UNIFORM SYSTEM OF ACCOUNTS	REMARKS
Alabama..........	Governor	Chief examiner of public acts	x	x	x	....	Including legislative appropriations for any person, institution or organization	No provision	....
Arizona...........	Governor	State examiner	x	x	x	....	All precinct offices	State offices, institutions and counties	Supervision of state offices and institutions under direction of department of accounting and banking
Arkansas..........	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	No law in effect
California.........	State board of control	Superintendent of accounts	x	x	x	x	Including all disbursing officials	All offices and municipalities	....
Colorado..........	Auditor of state	Public examiner	x	x	x	....	....	State offices, institutions and counties	....
Connecticut......	Comptroller	....	x	x	....	....	Courts and commissions	Courts, state offices and commissions	....
Delaware.........	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	No law in effect
Florida...........	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	No law in effect
Georgia...........	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	No law in effect
Idaho.............	State insurance commissioner	State examiner	x	x	x	....	....	State and county offices	....
Illinois............	Auditor of state	Auditor of public accounts	x	x	....	....	....	No provision	....
Indiana...........	State board of accounts	State examiner	x	x	x	x	Civil and school cities and towns	All offices	....
Iowa..............	Auditor of state	....	....	....	....	....	Cities and towns	Cities and towns	Examination of cities and towns less than 5000 population on application or petition

Kansas..........	Governor	State accountant	x	x	x	....	....	State institutions	Examination of counties on written order of governor
Kentucky........	Governor	State inspector and examiner	x	x	x	....	....	No provision	....
Louisiana.........	Governor	Supervisor of public accounts	x	x	x	x	Municipal corporations, police and road district juries	All offices	....
Maine............	Governor	State auditor	x	x	....	....	....	No provision	....
Maryland........	Governor	State auditor	x	x	x	....	City of Baltimore	All offices	....
Massachusetts....	Auditor of the commonwealth	Director bureau of statistics	x	x	....	....	Cities and towns (on petition)	State offices, institutions, cities and towns	....
Michigan.........	Auditor general	....	x	x	....	....	....	State offices and institutions	....
Minnesota........	Department of public examiner	Public examiner	x	x	x	....	Cities (over 50,000 population) towns and villages (on request)	All offices	....
Mississippi........	State revenue department	State revenue agent	x	x	x	x	All municipalities and levy boards	No provision	....
Missouri..........	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	No law in effect
Montana..........	State board of examiners	State accountant	....	x	....	....	City fire department relief associations	State institutions	....
Nebraska.........	Auditor of public accounts	State accountant	....	x	County treasurer	....	....	County treasurer's office	....
Nevada..........	Governor	State auditor	....	....	....	....	....	State offices, institutions and counties	Examination of counties, cities and towns affected through local examination boards
New Hampshire.	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	No law in effect
New Jersey.......	Department of accounts	Auditor of accounts	x	x	....	....	....	State offices and institutions	....

* Compiled by F. H. Irwin, director, municipal statistics, Indiana State Board of Accounts, Indianapolis, Ind.

x Indicates that the office is subject to supervision.

State Supervision of Municipal Accounts, Under Existing Legislative Enactments Prior to 1913—Continued

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
STATE	SUPERVISORY CONTROL	OFFICIAL TITLE OF EXAMINING OFFICER	STATE OFFICES	STATE INSTITUTIONS	COUNTIES	TOWNSHIPS	OTHER MUNICIPALITIES	INSTALLATION OF UNIFORM SYSTEM OF ACCOUNTS	REMARKS
New Mexico	Traveling auditor and bank examiner	Traveling auditor and bank examiner	x	x	x			State offices, institutions and counties	
New York	State comptroller	Chief accountant			x		Cities (second and third class) villages (population of 3000 or more)	Counties, cities and towns	Cities of first class excluded, also the four counties comprising the city of Greater New York
North Carolina									No law in effect
North Dakota	Board of control		x	x				State institutions	
Ohio	Bureau of inspection and supervision of public offices	Chief inspector and supervisor	x	x	x	x	All taxing districts	All offices	
Oklahoma	Governor	State examiner and inspector	x	x	x		Counties are examined on request or petition	State offices institutions and counties	
Oregon									No law in effect
Pennsylvania	Auditor general		x	x				No provision	Supervision of state expenditures only
Rhode Island									No law in effect
South Carolina	Joint legislative commission		x	x				No provision	
South Dakota	Governor	Executive accountant	x	x	x			No provision	Law amended 1913 session. Examination of counties on request
Tennessee	Comptroller	Revenue agent	x	x	x			No provision	
Texas									No law in effect
Utah	State auditor	Examiner of public accounts	x	x	County treasurer			County treasurer's office	
Vermont									No law in effect

Virginia.........	Governor	State accountant	x	x	....	....	....	State offices and institutions	....
Washington.......	Bureau of inspection and supervision of public offices	Chief inspector and supervisor	x	x	x	x	All taxing districts including civil and school cities and towns	All offices	....
West Virginia....	State tax commissioner	Chief inspector and supervisor	x	x	x	x	All taxing districts including civil and school cities and towns	All offices	....
Wisconsin........	State tax commissioner	Accounting director	x	x	x	....	Cities, towns and villages	All offices (on request)	....
Wyoming........	Governor	State examiner	x	x	x	x	School districts, cities and towns (on request)	All offices	Supervision also of all financial institutions

x Indicates that the office is subject to supervision.

The Columbus Wire Code.[1]—The Columbus wire code was approved October 28, 1912. It is designed to prevent fires, accidents or injuries to persons and property. Its real purpose is to remove the "wire nuisance" as an interference with the work of the fire department.

The superintendent of the fire and police telegraph is made the chief executive officer under the code. Among his duties are: (1) To supervise and regulate the placing, stringing and attaching of all telegraph, telephone, electric light wires, guy wires, and trolley wires in the city. (2) To inspect all electrical wires or apparatus which may become dangerous to life and property; if dangerous, to condemn the wires and order either the removal or the placing of them on safe condition. (3) To keep records of conduits, poles and apparatus outside of the buildings of each concern doing business in Columbus, and having telegraph, telephone, electric light, or electric power lines. Maps, descriptions, and periodical reports are to be made by the concerns when so requested. The information to be requested includes the number and location of poles and posts, number of cross arms on each, number of wires attached, and the location of subways and manholes. The superintendent is given the right to enter any building, subway, manhole to make tests of electrical wires or apparatus. All poles now standing and those to be erected, and all covers for manholes now in service or to be placed in service must be branded or stenciled with the registered mark of the corporation owning them.

Before a corporation can erect a line of poles or construct a subway, a map of the route must be submitted to the superintendent together with other details of construction, and his approval secured. All corporations are required to take every reasonable precaution to prevent contact between the high tension wires and other wires. The superintendent is authorized to use the police power of the city to cause the removal of all wires maintained in violation of this ordinance

Charles Wells Reeder.[2]

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Uniform Sidewalks, Columbus, Ohio.[3]—All sidewalks hereafter constructed must be of cement, 5 feet wide, and located so that the outside line of the walk will not be less than 3 feet from the outside line of the curbstone. All grades and levels are to be fixed by the chief engineer of the city. No depressions for making driveways or entrances to private or public property will be allowed. The plans and specifications for kind and quality of materials will be open to public inspection in the chief engineer's office. No work can be started on a sidewalk until the chief engineer is notified. All work is to be under his inspection, and no bills are to be paid for the construction of a walk until it has been accepted and approved by the chief engineer in writing.

Charles Wells Reeder.[4]

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Initiative and Referendum—St. Louis.—The voters adopted at the November election the initiative and referendum amendment to the city charter. Fifteen per cent of the registered voters may now require any proposed ordinance either to be passed by the city assembly or submitted to the people. No franchise for any public utility becomes effective except by a vote of the people. This latter seems to apply to all franchises even for minor switching and other privileges.

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Saloons.—Ordinances passed by the city commission of Pontiac, Michigan, in December, 1912, make it unlawful for any "posted" man to enter a saloon. Another ordinance puts a penalty upon minors entering saloons. Milwaukee has also recently passed an ordinance prohibiting the entrance of minors into saloons.

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[1] Ordinance no. 26875.

[2] Ohio State University Library.

[3] Ordinance no. 26811. Dated November 25, 1912.

[4] Ohio State University Library.

Telegraph and Telephone Poles.—An ordinance of Pontiac, Michigan, taxes telegraph and telephone poles 30 cents per pole per year. The ordinance is being contested by the companies concerned.

II. JUDICIAL DECISIONS

Limitation on the Initiative.—The people of Seattle have been informed by the supreme court of Washington (*Dolan vs. Puget Sound Traction Light & Power Co.*)[1] that their legislative power under the initiative and referendum is not coextensive with the power of the city council. The court held that "the power to grant franchises is a sovereign power." That it might be delegated by the state to a city, but it is not within the power of the city unless expressly so delegated.

One might think that when the legislature of a state authorizes a city to frame its own charter and that all the powers, duties and functions shall be as provided therein as to its own government, the right to grant franchises would be included. In this case a franchise was granted violating the terms of the city charter reserving to the city council or the people the right to acquire "all the property of the grantee within the limits of the public streets" that it should not include any valuation for the franchise itself; and that "every ordinance making any such grant shall contain a reservation of these rights of the city council and the people." The ordinance in question did not reserve these rights. The court found the ordinance valid and the charter provision void, on the ground that the legislature had vested in the city the power to grant franchises. That granting franchises is a subject of legislative authority and that "the legislative authority of the city means the mayor and city council."

The court fortified its position by the argument that general law enacted by the legislature is superior to and supersedes all "freeholder charter" provisions inconsistent with it. This is a principle which has some possibilities as a means of sapping the strength of the "home rule" idea in city government.

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Police Power Again.—An ingenious argument in limitation of our old friend the police power was demolished by the supreme court of California in *ex parte Montgomery.*[2] The city of Los Angeles has the power under its charter to licence, regulate or prohibit certain named establishments and businesses. Lumber yards, however, are not among them. When a city ordinance made it unlawful to operate lumber yards in certain prescribed residence districts, the contention was raised that the naming of certain businesses in the charter limited the power of regulation to those named. The court construed the list as an enumeration rather than a limitation, and held that nothing contained in the charter could affect the constitutional grant made to the city and that under that grant the city is entitled to exercise the whole police power of the state, so far as local regulations are concerned, subject only to the control of the general laws.

The court considered a lumber yard not *per se* a nuisance but a legitimate subject for regulation by the city.

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The Heft of the Loaf.—The supreme court has often qualified as a dietary expert but in the case of *Schmidinger vs. City of Chicago,*[3] it had a new phase of the culinary problem to deal with. The city of Chicago by municipal ordinance fixed the weight of the standard loaf of bread at one pound, and to protect that standard forbade the making or selling of loaves not up to it, or a specified fraction or multiple thereof. The court decided, after careful consideration, that, while the ordinance might cause some inconvenience to those deprived of the privilege of selling baked bubbles surrounded by a crust, as bread, it was not such an unreasonable or arbitrary exercise of the police powers as to be void under the fourteenth amendment. That an attempt to compel a baker to give full weight charged for does not involve the taking of property without due process of law to such an extent as to nullify the attempt.

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[1] 130 Pac. 352.

[2] 125 Pac. 1070.

[3] 33 S. C. R. 182.

The court also had to meet the hoary contention that the freedom of contract guaranteed by the fourteenth amendment was interfered with. In accordance with a well established habit, however, the appellant was informed that there is no absolute freedom in that regard, and that any rights to contract for under weight loaves that might be claimed by the citizens of Chicago were not so fundamental as to stand in opposition to an otherwise legitimate exercise of the police power of the city.

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Excess Condemnation and the Constitution.—The decision of Judge Sulzberger in the Philadelphia case is of great importance as a precedent even if it is not the determination of the court of last resort. The possibility of the best results from the city planning movements now so popular are largely dependent on the power of excess condemnation.

Pennsylvania cities were given this right in 1907 as to lands within 200 feet of parks, playgrounds, etc., and the further right to sell the land so condemned subject to restrictions. This power is one that has made the large city-betterment plans of European cities possible and in many cases profitable.

The constitutionality of the act giving the right is upheld by the court in explicit terms. The hands of those interested in improving the physical aspects of municipal life have been tied too long by our deification of the individual, and decisions which seem to give men, as opposed to man, a chance are being hailed with delight by the great majority of public spirited citizens.

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City vs. County Local Option.—An interesting question as to the right of a Michigan city to limit the number of its saloons has recently been raised at Saginaw. Michigan has local option with the county as the unit. A charter amendment was adopted by the people limiting the number of saloons to one to every 500 inhabitants. The bonding committee of the city council proceeding to act on the amendment was confronted with the objection, sustained by the city attorney, that the charter amendment is illegal and unconstitutional because in conflict with the home rule act and the constitution. That the general law gives the council the power to fix the number of saloons by ordinance, but that the electors of the city have no such authority. The city attorney seems to have plenty of precedent and authority in support of his position and the people of Saginaw are placed in the rather anomalous position of having to attempt to get done through their elected officials something they thought they had already done for themselves.

The power of direct legislation is recent and in some respects the extent is not well defined nor the limits well established. Situations like that at Saginaw are sufficiently absurd and should not long be possible.

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Ports as Municipal Corporations.—The Oregon statute prescribing the method for the organization of ports was before the court in *State ex rel Watt vs. Port of Bay City.*[1] Under L.O.L. section 6115, it is provided that if the territorial limits of the district to be organized as a port do not include the county as a whole they shall not extend beyond the natural watershed of any drainage basin, etc. In this case the court held that the petition for the organization being in regular form, the notice of election properly given, the returns properly made and the proclamation of the formation of the port duly and properly entered, the finding of the county court that the port had been regularly organized and incorporated and the entry of such finding in the journal is *res judicata* as to every fact necessary to constitute a valid corporation including the location of the boundaries. That the time for objection to the inclusion of land in such boundaries is during proceedings in the county court and prior to such finding and that no such question can thereafter be raised by quo warranto.

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[1] 129 Pac. R. 496.

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Parks and Railways in Conflict.—A decision of great importance to Chicago is *Chicago City Railway Company vs. South Park Commissioners.*[1] The decision confirms the right of the city, about which there ought never to have been much doubt, to control its own streets. In this instance the limits of the authority of the park commissioners over streets taken over as parks and the intersections of boulevards with public streets was considered. The railway company refused to comply with the conditions prescribed by the park commissioners and disputed their jurisdiction under the theory that it was authorized to build as it proposed under the franchise upon which it was operating and that the authority of the commissioners was not exclusive.

The court found that the control of the park commissioners as to park and boulevard uses is exclusive but that the city's authority over the intersections of the boulevards and public streets was not entirely taken away and that such intersections remained parts of the public streets under the concurrent jurisdiction of the park board and the city. That while the city retained the sole power to permit the laying out and maintenance of street railways and while the park board could not prevent the construction of a street railway across the intersections, it did have the right to require that the work be done subject to such reasonable limitations and conditions as would cause the least interference with their use as driveways and boulevards.

This ruling makes possible the continuation of the park system and permits the park plans to be carried out without being broken into too seriously by the railways. At the same time the park board is not confirmed in any such authority as will permit it to interfere seriously with legitimate and reasonable traffic plans.

✤

The Baseball Peril.—The question as to the liability of a city for the death of a passerby resulting from summer evening baseball was before the court in *Goodwin vs. Reidsville.*[2] The police apparently sympathized with Young America to the extent of permitting the game to go on in the street. A passerby was injured by the ball and a claim set up against the city in consequence.

The court made the distinction between the governmental and legislative and the private and ministerial functions of a municipal corporation, holding that the maintenance of order and enforcement of the laws for the safety of the public is a governmental function and that in respect thereof such a corporation is immune from suit. This distinction is a simple enough one in principle and is one very often made by the courts, yet the frequency of the cases in which it has to be applied indicates that it is not particularly well understood. The court further announced that the question as to whether the playing of baseball was or was not prohibited by ordinance was of no importance. That the duty of the city to prevent injury and maintain order was the same in either case, being an act governmental in its nature for a violation of which duty the city is exempt from suit.

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[1] 101 N. E. 201.

[2] 76 S. E. 232.

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Who Owns the Streets.—The right of a village to its streets was considered by the New York Supreme court in the case of the *Northern Westchester Lighting Company vs. President and Trustees of Village of Ossining.*[1] The lighting company was upheld by the court in its contention that the only interest of a municipal corporation in its streets is that of the public in the highways and that it has no interest in protecting the rights of abutting owners of the fee against interference with the highway by third persons without the consent of such owners.

In this case the company was making use of the streets for its own purposes without reference to the interests of the village in furtherance of its business in carrying gas to other towns and villages. The village authorities could not see the propriety of their streets being torn up solely for the benefit of others. The court was of the opinion however that the municipal authorities having once given consent to the use of their streets by the company for the purpose of conveying gas, could not object to such use during the life of the franchise and that the fact that the gas was to be furnished to other towns and villages was not material.

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Perpetual Franchises.—The supreme court of Iowa has, in *State ex rel County Attorney vs. Des Moines City Railway Company,*[2] overruled the claim of the company to a perpetual franchise. The terms of the original franchise are somewhat ambiguous in that its duration is not mentioned. The rights on certain streets were however made exclusive for a period of thirty years.

The court makes a distinction between the case of a municipal corporation granting a franchise for the use of the streets by public service corporations and contracting with water companies for water for fire or other purposes the former being done by it as agent for the state and the latter in its private capacity. Relying on this distinction it holds that the muncipality is dependent on a grant by the state for its authority to grant franchises and that under the Iowa code a city council may not grant a perpetual franchise directly or indirectly. Thus disposing of the claim that since the city had acquiesced in the making of valuable improvements under the terms of a supposedly perpetual franchise it was estopped from disputing it. The public corporations hold onto their "perpetual" franchises with remarkable tenacity, but are gradually being made to recognize that there must be limits to all things.

⁂

Necessity for Securing Leave of Absence.—The rather too common spectacle of a city employe attempting to collect pay for time he did not work for the city was before the court in *Reilly vs. City of New York.*[3] The New York city charter contains a provision authorizing heads of departments to deduct from the salaries of subordinates for absence without leave. The contention was raised in this case that where the absence is due to illness or other unavoidable causes such as would constitute a sufficient ground for asking leave of absence, the absence of the formality ought not to prejudice the position of the employe. The court could not see the matter in exactly that light, however, and held that the power conferred on the head of the department being unquestioned, illness or disability where not of such a sudden and disabling character as to prevent the application for leave of absence being made, could not be set upon as a reason for over-riding the decision of the department head.

C. D. Mahaffie.

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[1] 139 N. Y. S. 373.

[2] 140 N. W. R. 437.

[3] 139 N. Y. S. 718.

DEPARTMENT OF REPORTS AND DOCUMENTS

I. CRITICAL AND INTERPRETATIVE

EDITED BY JOHN A. FAIRLIE

Professor of Political Science, University of Illinois

Municipal Debts in Massachusetts.[1]—The Massachusetts bureau of statistics, has been gathering, tabulating, and publishing in annual reports general statistics of municipal finances, including not only data regarding receipts and expenditures, but debt. It had undertaken, however, no extensive special investigation of any one branch of the subject until somewhat unexpectedly called upon two years ago by the passage of an order in the senate on February 14, 1911, to make a report not later than March 1 following as to what cities and towns had outstanding indebtedness, other than temporary tax loans, "against which no sinking funds are being accumulated or for the extinguishment of which no annual payments of principal are being made."

Obviously, within such a short period as two weeks, it was impossible to make a thorough inquiry covering the entire state, but by careful examination and tabulation of such information as was already on file in the department and by as much research as competent clerks working overtime could give to the matter by examining files of city and town documents, a report was made within the time limit. This is the report published as *Municipal Bulletin No. 4*.

The immediate *raison d'être* of this inquiry was a petition then pending in the legislature from the town of Danvers for permission to issue a refunding loan to extinguish a 6 per cent *demand note* for $20,000, given by the town in 1875, and on which interest payments for thirty-five years had aggregated $42,000; and the holder suddenly demanding payment, it could not be met. The legislature accordingly thought it might be advisable to ascertain the extent to which municipal indebtedness consisted of loans of this character which were being permitted to run on indefinitely with no provision being made for payment, and also the extent to which the principal of trust funds (which probably exist in Massachusetts municipalities more generally than in any other state) had been used, interest being paid on the same so that they constitute a liability instead of an asset. Numerous examples of this method of handling trust funds are pointed out in this first report, which in view of the shortness of the time allowed for the inquiry, had but scratched the surface of the question, and recommended that the whole question be given further careful consideration before any attempt should be made to legislate on the subject.

The legislature of 1911 adopted this suggestion by authorizing the bureau of statistics to make a more complete investigation and providing the necessary funds for the purpose. During the following autumn and winter, accordingly, a careful canvass was made of the facts regarding municipal indebtedness in every one of the 354 municipalities of the State, particular reference being had to the manner in which debt had been incurred with respect to the various restrictions of the statutes. The results of this investigation were embodied in a report made to the legislature on April 15, 1912, which reviewed the manner in which the general law relating to municipal indebtedness had operated since its passage in 1875, with some incidental discussion of the operation of the supplementary act passed in 1885, ostensibly placing a tax limit of $12 in the $1000, on the amount which could be raised *by cities* for local municipal purposes. The manner in which the law had proved ineffective for the accomplishment of its purpose seemed to suggest the necessity of a thorough revision, and this was embodied in a draft of a bill printed on page 215 of the report.

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[1] Outstanding Indebtedness of Certain Cities and Towns of Massachusetts. Bureau of Statistics, *Municipal Bulletin No. 4*, March, 1911.

Report of a Special Investigation Relative to the Indebtedness of the Cities and Towns of the Commonwealth. Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics, April 15, 1912.

Report of the Joint Special Committee on Municipal Finance, to the Great and General Court. Massachusetts House Reports, no. 1803, Boston, January, 1913.

Report of a Special Investigation Relative to the Sinking Funds and Serial Loans of the Cities and Towns of the Commonwealth. Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics, March 5, 1913.

The chief purpose of this proposed legislation was to limit the amount that could be borrowed in anticipation of taxes; to prevent the refunding of such temporary loans (an abuse which had grown so that at the present time a considerable portion of what is substantially fixed or permanent debt has been found, on investigation, to have originated in purely temporary loans); to *classify* what is ordinarily described as funded debt according to the *purpose* of the loan, and in determining the time limit of the various classes of loans, not to permit the life of the same to extend beyond the life of the improvement, so far as practicable to fix upon the same; then to prohibit borrowing for any other than the several specified purposes. This theory of classifying municipal loans by specifying in a general statute certain particular purposes for which it is deemed legitimate to incur debt, and fixing definite periods for which these several debts shall be allowed to run, seemed to offer, the best remedy for borrowing on account of current expenses, and if adhered to, a practical method of stopping the same.

No one, aparently, has ever been able to define the term "current expenses" in such a way that the evil of borrowing on this account could be prevented by a simple statutory provision prohibiting the same; for what is a current expense under certain conditions and in some municipalities may partake sufficiently of the nature of a permanent improvement or a capital outlay as to warrant the issue of debt in other municipalities. Instead, therefore, of prohibiting borrowing for current expenses, it was proposed to permit borrowing for certain specified purposes and to prohibit borrowing for any other, and to make the list of specified purposes sufficiently inclusive so that a municipality need not be hampered in its growth by any obstacles in the general statute calculated to prevent its issuing debt for properly legitimate purposes. In other words, it was intended to give the municipalities as large powers of local government in this respect as are safe without necessitating resort to the legislature for special legislation any more than is necessary,—but on the other hand, to compel individual municipalities to come to the legislature and prove their case when they wish to borrow for some purpose not specifically permitted by the general law and which, conceivably, it might be proper to permit in individual cases, but especially dangerous to allow as a general proposition.

One other important feature of this revision was the exclusion of any provision for and, indeed, the prohibition of the further establishment of sinking funds, and the stipulation that all municipal indebtedness shall be issued hereafter by the serial method. This method has already been adopted by Massachusetts with reference to its own financial policy, and voluntarily by numerous individual cities and towns, including the city of Boston, which no longer issues any sinking fund debt for general purposes; and it was now proposed to make this method of providing for the payment of municipal indebtedness universal in Massachusetts, which will be the first state, to make this the exclusive method for the payment of municipal debts.

The legislation above outlined in part as embodied in the report of April 15, 1912, was referred for further consideration to a special committee appointed to sit during the recess and to report to the legislature this year. This committee labored very faithfully and conscientiously during the last summer and autumn, taking the former reports and data as a basis in large measure for their inquiries, but approaching the subject from a somewhat different angle, namely, by personally summoning the mayors and financial officers of every city in the state and the selectmen and financial officers of a large number of towns. These officials were examined in person, and the committee was well satisfied at the conclusion of its labors that the worst conditions reported as having been found were in no sense exaggerated, and that the contention that a thorough revision of the statutes should be made was well founded. The committee, went into certain branches of the general subject, such as the assessment and collection of taxes, which the previous inquiry did not purport to cover and which fall more closely within the jurisdiction of the tax commissioner's office.

The result of the committee's review of the reports of the bureau and its own investigations were embodied in a report which it made to the current legislature. The recess committee took the bill and made certain changes in the same as the result of further conferences and consideration, and certain additional perfecting changes have also been made by the standing committee of the present legislature to which the matter was referred and which has been giving additional public hearings on the subject during the past two months, being now about to make a final report to the Legislature; and there seems to be no doubt but that the bill now agreed upon will pass. Both the recess committee of the last legislature and the standing committee of the present legislature which have considered this subject, (notwithstanding their membership have been composed, of course, of men of different political parties who have naturally been animated by varying personal points of view) have been dominated by a single, distinct desire to enact a piece of legislation having for its sole purpose the public welfare; and in view of the differences which generally arise in the consideration of such matters, it is worthy of note that the recess committee's report was the result of a unanimous agreement on the part of the members, and it seems probable that the committee of the present legislature having the matter under consideration will also be unanimous in its conclusions.

A special report has also been made relating to sinking funds and serial loans. This subject naturally fell within the scope of the report which was made last year, but was the result of a special order intended to provide for a more particular investigation of this matter,—the findings, which are the result of actual computations in the Bureau of Statistics of some 1,200 sinking funds, merely serving to fortify the recommendations already made and to justify the proposition to prohibit the further establishment of sinking funds and to force the issue of all municipal indebtedness henceforth by the serial method.

Charles F. Gettemy.

Boston, Mass.

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Municipal Statistics.[1]—The U. S. census bureau publishes annually financial statistics of all cities in the United States having a population of 30,000 or over. In the 1910 report 184 municipalities are

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[1] Financial Statistics of Cities, 1910. Bureau of the Census, Washington, D. C. Cloth, 9 x 12; 308 pp.

Statistics of Municipal Finances, Massachusetts, 1909. Published by Charles F. Gettemy, Director of the Bureau of Statistics. Cloth, 6 x 9½, 348 pp.

Comparative Statistics. Cities of Ohio. 1911. Published by the Bureau of Inspection and Supervision of Public Offices. Paper, 6 x 9½, 222 pp.

Report, Municipal Accounts. Iowa. 1912. Published by the Department of Finance and Municipal represented. It aims to include all local government activities whether these are administered by a single municipal corporation or by a number of independent government bodies. The first twenty-five pages are devoted to a discussion of the general scope and character of the work and its object. There is also an explanation of accounting terminology, but this is not so extensive as in some of the earlier reports. About sixty pages are given over to a discussion of the general tables, which, together with the summary tables that are included, constitutes a valuable part of the report.

The statistics are almost wholly financial in character and are arranged in thirty-seven tables. In general, the facts presented in these tables relate to municipal receipts and payments, amount and value of public properties and improvements, indebtedness, per capita and per cent distribution of receipts and payments, assessed and full value of property and tax levies, receipts and expenditures and other information relating to schools. There is considerable sub-classification under each of these heads.

The general plan of presentation of the financial transactions of municipalities is the result of careful study and experiment extending over a number of years. The avowed aim is to supply such information as will be of definite assistance to those engaged in directing the affairs of cities, and for the accomplishment of this purpose it is well designed.

Throughout the Massachusetts report there is evidence of the definite aim of those in charge to present information of such a character and in such a manner as to be of direct assistance in the financial administration of cities. A noteworthy feature in this connection is the section of analysis tables, in which the results of a study for the years 1907, 1908, and 1909 of the relation which current revenue receipts bear to current revene. expenditures are shown. The extent to which cities have sufficient revenue to meet their current expenses, and the proportion of their revenue expended for maintenance, for interest, and for debt requirements are set forth in these tables in a manner which will emphasize for the local officials the importance of information of this kind.

The statistics presented are chiefly financial in character. They deal in order with the following subjects: Summary of financial transactions; receipts from revenue; payments for maintenance and interest; indebtedness; and cash balances. Under each of these main divisions there are numerous sub-divisions. Statistics are shown separately for cities, for towns over 5000, and for towns under 5000.

Special comment should be made of the summaries of financial transactions which present in a comprehensive manner all the financial transactions of each municipality for the year. The classification follows in the main the lines laid down by the census bureau. Several pages are devoted to an explanation and definition of the terms used. There are no balance sheets for the cities and no physical statistics are given.

The Ohio report contains statistics for the seventy cities in the state. In addition there is a copy of the Ohio uniform public accounting law. The statistics are financial in character. There are eleven tables in all. Of these seven deal with receipts and expenditures, one deals with assets and liabilities, and three exhibit information of a supplementary character, such as salaries, wages, tax levies, miles of paved streets, miles of sanitary sewers, per capita receipts and expenditures, etc. The statistics are comprehensive, and abundant detail has been introduced, but the report lacks a satisfactory summary of the financial transactions for each city.

Accounts. John L. Bleakley, Auditor of State. Cloth, 5½ x 8½, 235 pp,

Annual Report of the Department of Municipal Affairs of the Province of Saskatchewan. 1909-10, paper, 6½ x 10, 96 pp.; 1910-11, paper, 6½ x 10, 98 pp.; 1911-12, paper, 6½ x 10, 98 pp.

The classification is on a somewhat different basis than that employed by the census bureau and Massachusetts report, and to an extent a different terminology has been employed. An interesting feature of the report is the statement of assets and liabilities of the cities. This should be of distinct administrative value to the local officials. The per capita figures indicate an attempt to make the statistics of value for purposes of comparison. No figures for the public schools are given.

The Iowa report contains statistics for 90 of the 101 cities and 630 of the 723 incorporated towns in the state. The statistics for the towns are shown separately from those for the cities. The part of the report relating to the cities contains 17 tables. The first 9 of these show the receipts and expenditures in totals and in detail. Table 10 deals with indebtedness, and the remaining 6 tables present miscellaneous information, such as the assessed value of property, taxes levied, value of municipal possessions, salaries and wages, per capita receipts and expenditures, etc. Tables 16 and 17 contain physical statistics relating to public service industries and to other city enterprises. There are 4 tables of statistics for the towns which exhibit information of the same character as that shown for the cities but with less detail.

The classification varies in certain of its features from that employed in the other reports, and in some cases different terms are used. There is room for improvement in the mechanical arrangment of the different tables, and a few typographical errors have found their way into the report. Figures for the public schools are not included, and there is also lacking a satisfactory summary of the financial transactions for each city. The report contains a list of the city and town officers in Iowa and a series of extracts from the law governing the municipalities of Iowa.

The Saskatchewan reports contain general information relating to various phases of municipal organization in that province. Lists are given of the cities, the towns, the villages, the rural municipalities, and the local improvement districts together with the principal officers of each. The reports contain no financial statistics.

In considering reports such as the foregoing one naturally raises the question as to their purpose. In general, this may be said to be two-fold. First: they should provide local officials with information which will lead to a more efficient municipal administration. Secondly: these reports should furnish the general public with accurate information concerning the scope, character, and cost of municipal activities. In order that this two-fold aim may be carried out effectively, it is essential that the classification of financial transactions should be logical, consistent, and directly adapted to administrative needs. It is obvious that much information can be presented in reports such as these which is of no direct value in the solution of the practical problems of municipal administration, and to a certain extent information of such a character is contained in the reports under consideration. On the other hand, the statistics should be complete. The facts relating to every phase of municipal activity should be reported whether these are administered directly by the municipal corporation or by other local government bodies. The absence of statistics relating to the public schools in the Ohio and the Iowa report has been noted.

It is essential, furthermore, that the information be presented in a manner that will emphasize such facts as are of particular significance. The reports will be of little administrative value to the average local official unless this is done. To this end the mechanical arrangement of the report is a matter worthy of careful study. Attention has been called to the summary of financial transactions in the Massachusetts report. Such a statement is of value because it presents on opposite pages of the report in a concise and yet a comprehensive manner all the financial transactions of each municipality for the year. The mechanical arrangement of the statement is especially to be commended. When the information relating to any one city is spread over a number of pages it is much more difficult to get a clear idea of the true financial situation of that city. Special mention should also be made of the analysis tables of the Massachusetts report and the description of the general tables in the census report. All the reports contain per capita figures to an extent, and some of them have introduced per cent figures which are valuable in this respect, but there is still much opportunity for improvement. Numerous pages of statistics are apt to prove very uninteresting, and if the reports are to accomplish their chief purpose, it is essential that they embody suggestions and hints to the local officials for the proper utilization of the information they contain.

The reports would be of greater value for purposes of comparison if a uniform terminology and classification were adopted. Modifications will always need to be made in order to conform to such peculiarities as there may be in the conditions of municipal organization in the different states, but it would be highly desirable if the different state reports followed more closely than they do the classification and terminology employed by the census bureau. If this were done attention would more readily be directed to defects in the general scheme of municipal organization in the different states and their elimination could be brought about.

Total figures are of little value for purposes of comparison. For this reason it is very desirable to have unit costs shown in the reports which will reflect both the quantity and quality of the service. In time it is to be hoped that it will be possible to establish standards for the cost of the various phases of municipal administration.

All the reports point out the fact that there is still a lack of ready coöperation on the part of some local officials in the preparation of these reports, but they also emphasize a growing understanding and appreciation on the part of the greater number of such officials and of the public at large of the significance of this work.

O. R. Martin.

University of Illinois.

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Assessment of Real Estate in the District of Columbia.—The committee on the District of Columbia of the house of representatives in April, 1812, delegated a subcommittee to make an inquiry into the assessment and taxation of real estate in the district. The report of this subcommittee was submitted August 20, 1912.[1] Mr. Henry George, Jr., of New York directed the inquiry.

The committee found an utter lack of method in the assessment of both land and improvements; the sole standard utilized in either was the "assessorial naked judgment." The legal requirement that land and buildings should be separately assessed was complied with in merely a nominal way and the further requirement that each should be assessed at its true value, not at all.

As sales in Washington are made on the square-foot basis, the assessor has used this method in assessing land. But in applying it, he has made no allowance for the fact that the square-foot unit is a variable quantity. He has ignored the necessity of adjusting it with reference to such considerations as the depth, corner location, and alley access of each individual lot. The result has been that comparable lots, adjacent to one another have frequently been assessed at the same rate per foot though their depth has varied 50 per cent. Under the Hoffman-Neill rule the front half of a 100-foot lot is worth two-thirds of its entire value, and the rear half only one-third. Lots adjacent to corner lots, moreover, have in many instances been assessed at only 40 per cent of the corner rate when no such disproportion in values has existed.

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[1] 62d Congress, 2d Session, House Report No. 1215.

When requested by the committee to produce tables showing the factors of value employed in the assessment of buildings, the assessor was unable to do so. On investigation, the committee found buildings that really encumbered the ground on which they stood to be heavily assessed. The old Shoreham Hotel is cited as an instance. Although this is an antiquated structure that should have been torn down to give place to a modern building, it had up to the time of the last assessment been assessed at $200,000 when it was increased to $300,000. All increase in the value of this property had obviously been an increase in land value and should have been so assessed. An increased assessment in land value would, however, have necessitated a readjustment of the land value assessments of the entire square and the adjacent squares.

The committee discovered square after square of small homes where the building value, already heavily assessed, had been increased 20, 25 and 30 per cent although the structures had in no wise had their value enhanced by repairs or by any additional improvements. In one square, the buildings of which were all old, the increase was 35 per cent. A mechanic, for instance, who had painted the porch of his small home at a cost of 50 cents had had his building assessment increased by $500.

The real estate in the district has theoretically been assessed at two-thirds of its true value. In 1911–12 the total real estate assessment was $330,000,000. On this basis, if accurately assessed, the true value of the real estate would have been $495,000,000. But the assessed value on being raised to 100 per cent constituted only two-thirds of the true value. The committee estimated the true value to be $744,000,000.

This under-assessment of real estate did not attach equally to land and improvements, but overwhelmingly to land. Land with a true value of $504,000,000 was assessed at $170,000,000, or at one-third of its true value. Improvements, on the other hand, with a true value of $240,000,000 were assessed at $160,000,000 or at two-thirds their true value.

In 1894 the land value was 59 per cent and the improvement value 41 per cent of the assessed real estate value. This preponderance of land value has steadily lessened since that time to the point of disappearance. In 1912, the land value was 51 per cent and the improvement value 49 per cent of the assessed real estate value.

For the purposes of its investigation the committee divided the district into five areas: the small-home area; the middle-class area; the fine-residence area; the business area; and the suburban area. Examined in this manner, the assessments revealed the grossest discrimination between class and class and between land and improvements.

Land in the area possessing the 40,000 small homes was assessed at 60 per cent of its true value; that in the middle-class area at 50 per cent; that in the fine-residence area at 30 per cent; and that in the business and suburban areas at 20 per cent.

Improvements in the small-home area were assessed at 90 per cent of their true value; in the middle class and business areas at 71 per cent; in the suburban area at 67 per cent; and in the fine-residence area at 60 per cent.

Real estate in the district as a whole was assessed at 66⅔ per cent of its true value. But in the small-home area it was assessed at 73 per cent of its true value, an overassessment of more than 6 per cent on the basis of assessment. In the middle-class area, however, it was assessed at only 61 per cent of true value; in the fine-residence area at 38 per cent; in the business area at 37 per cent; and in the suburban area at 25 per cent.

The district has a fixed tax rate of 1½ per cent. Had 100 per cent of assessed value been identical with true value, this rate would have been equivalent to 1 per cent. But as the taxable assessment in the district is two-third of the full assessment and as the full assessment happened to be but two-thirds of true value, this tax rate when applied amounted to only two-thirds of one per cent.

If the District had had a tax rate of one per cent on a full and true value assessment in 1911–12—a tax rate equivalent to one of 1½ per cent on a two-thirds assessment of true value—its revenue from the taxation of real estate would have been $2,490,000 more than it actually was. Large as this increase in the tax levy on real estate would have been—50 per cent of the one imposed—the increase would not have affected the small-home area. In fact, the taxes paid by this area in that year exceeded by more than 10 per cent the amount that it would have paid under a 1 per cent tax rate on a true value assessment. Not so, however, with the other areas. The middle-class area would have had its tax levy on real estate increased by 8 per cent; the fine-residence area by 42 per cent; the business area by 45 per cent; and the suburban area by 63 per cent.

No city has a more scientific system of assessing real estate than New York. The testimony of Lawson Purdy describing the assessment machinery in this city is one of the most interesting and valuable portions of the report submitted by the committee. When analyzed the recommendations of the committee simply mean the adoption of the system that has been so successful in New York.

The committee made five important recommendations of general interest: (1) that real estate be assessed at its full value instead of two-thirds value; (2) that the fixed rate tax of 1½ per cent be repealed; (3) that real estate be assessed annually instead of triennially; (4) that land-value maps be published; and (5) that standard units of value be established in determining the separate assessments of land and improvements. To facilitate assessment at full value the committee recommended the enactment of a law requiring the true consideration in all real estate transfers to be recorded. With true value as the basis of assessment, overassessments and underassessments are more apparent and therefore more easily corrected. An accurate assessment based on a percentage of true value entails a greater amount of work on the assessor than a full value assessment. He must first ascertain the full value and then proceed to calculate the percentage of assessment. A full value assessment saves this computation.

Assessment at part value, moreover, gives a low tax rate the appearance of a high one. This artificial stimulation of the tax rate, instead of infusing city administrations with a burning zeal for economy, results either in the non-performance of much necessary work, or in its payment out of borrowed money when it should really be charged to current revenue. The borrowing power of many cities has as a consequence of this policy been seriously abused. The power to incur indebtedness, being based on the assessed valuation, is narrower, and for that reason, all the more precious in a city having a partial assessment than in one having a full assessment. When assessments are at 15 and 20 per cent of true value, as they are in many cities, the temptation to borrow for current purposes is almost irresistible. A 1 per cent levy on true value when translated into terms of a tax rate becomes 5 per cent, $5 in the $100.

The tax rate should always be fixed by budgetary requirements, not by statute. If the fixed tax rate is larger than that required by a city, it will result in extravagance and waste. If it is too small, it will result, either, in the throttling of necessary expenditure; in the tapping or retention of undesirable sources of revenue; or, in the borrowing of money for current account.

As the committee stated, a triennial assessment is not "an honest way of making an assessment." An annual assessment of real estate greatly improves the administration of the assessing department. The assessors being practically the whole time in the field become expert valuers. This secures uniformity of assessment. The annual assessment of real estate, moreover, increases the revenues of a city in that the increment in land value is intercepted every twelve months instead of every three years. It is also true that if real estate is not assessed annually, land of a declining value will be overassessed a large part of the time. Triennial assessments necessitate large and abrupt increases in the assessment of property rising in value. This excites much dissatisfaction among owners. Annual assessments to a large extent overcome this difficulty in that the increases are smaller and more gradual.

Herbert S. Swan.

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New Sources of City Revenue. The commission on new sources of city revenue, which submitted its report to Mayor Gaynor, January 11, approached its work with the attitude that the burden of local government should rest on those forms of property that represent values largely created by the community itself. New sources of revenue were not sought with any view to lessening the taxation of real estate. It seemed perfectly proper to the commission that real estate should bear the great bulk of municipal expenditure. The tax levy on real estate is at present about 95 per cent of the total tax levy and 77 per cent of the total budget.

The recommendations made by the commission if immediately adopted, were estimated to add $4,000,000 to the city's income in the first year. This amount would increase annually over $1,000,000 until in the tenth year the increase would be about $15,000,000, and in the twentieth year about $30,000,000.

Unearned increment tax. The most important recommendation of the Commission is that for a tax on future increases in land values. It does not, however, favor the methods of levy and collection for such a tax thus far followed in other countries; but proposes an increment tax of 1 per cent per annum, upon all increments of land value, as shown by comparison with the assessed valuations for the year 1912, and to be in addition to the general tax levied upon all real estate. On the basis of the average increase in land values in New York City during the past decade, such a tax would yield a revenue of $1,500,000 in the first year, increasing until in the tenth year the yield would approximate $15,000,000.

Miscellaneous sources of revenue. Other recommendations include the grant of broader licensing powers to the city, an extension of the practice of selling city privileges and concessions at public auction, the wider use of water meters, and taxing the privilege of conducting hack stands at its full commercial value.

Tax on signs and billboards.—A more specific recommendation is that each square foot of the area of billboards, signboards and electric signs be assessed at one per cent of the value per front foot of the land occupied (the basis for assessing land in New York) and taxed at the rate of two per cent per annum on the assessed valuation so ascertained. The city now derives an annual revenue of about $10,000 from license fees on electric signs; but billboards now pay no revenue to the city.

Adequate rentals for vault space.—The commission recommends that the charge for the privilege of constructing and using vaults under the sidewalks and streets of the city be made an annual payment based upon the assessed land value per front foot of the adjacent real estate, in place of the present nominal payments.

Excess condemnation. The commission also recommends the support of the pending amendment to the state constitution, granting to cities the power of excess or additional condemnation.

The ability of the city to coördinate land values along public improvements into its most usable form would increase the taxable value of real estate, and a part of the value recouped to the public would diminish the cost of many public improvements.

Miscellaneous recommendations. Other recommendations of the commission are:

1. That a special commission be appointed to report on possible economies in the city administration.
2. That a new sinking fund policy involving the purchase and cancellation of city obligations when below par be considered. This would considerably expedite the amortization of the city's debt and increase the earnings of the sinking fund.
3. That assessment bonds be excluded in the computation of the city's borrowing power.
4. That the principle of special assessment be applied to the construction of rapid transit railroad extensions.
5. That an earnest effort be made to secure a higher rate of interest than two per cent on deposits of city money.
6. That the city take over the franchises and property of the subway conduit companies.
7. That no form of real property, such as churches or cemeteries, be exempt from assessment for local improvements.
8. That the city sell to better advantage the asset which it has in the commercial use of garbage and other forms of city wastes.
9. That the special franchise tax be amended.
10. That city prison labor be more intelligently organized with reference to the needs of city departments for supplies and material.
11. That all miscellaneous sources of revenue now diverted to pension funds or to quasi-public institutions be paid directly into the city treasury; and that in so far as such contributions are necessary or desirable for the future they be made by direct budget appropriation.
12. (a) That all taxable personal property not now liable to some special and exclusive tax be subjected to a tax of three mills on the dollar in lieu of the present rate; (b) that indebtedness be no longer offset against taxable assets; and (c) that personal property amounting to less than ten thousand dollars be exempted from taxation.
13. That the remaining relics of the payment of county officers by fees for services rendered be discontinued; that such officers be paid definite salaries; and that the fees received for rendering public services be turned into the public treasury.
14. That the mandatory legislative acts prescribing the payrolls of county offices be repealed, and that the board of estimate be made responsible for county appropriations.
15. That the city create a system of wholesale markets and discontinue its present system of retail markets.
16. That all animal-drawn vehicles be licensed.
17. That the motor vehicle tax be increased.
18. That certain departmental fees be increased.
19. That the method of disposing of unneeded personal property owned by the city be improved.
20. That real estate owned but no longer needed by the city be sold and the proceeds be applied to the acquisition of needed real estate.

HERBERT S. SWAN.[1]

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Municipal Asphalt Plant.—In the District of Columbia appropriation bill, approved June 26, 1912, there was included an item of $5000 "to enable the commissioners of the District of Columbia to make a thorough investigation of the desirability and cost of establishing a municipal asphalt plant . . . ." The investigation has been made by Davis E. McComb, and his report dated December 31, 1912, has been published as House document no. 1195 of the 62d Congress, 3d session.

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[1] Chief investigator for the commission.

The first part of the report is a description of the work done in cities having municipal asphalt plants; namely, Detroit; Brooklyn; Cincinnati; Kansas City, Mo.; St. Louis, Toledo; Columbus, O.; Indianapolis; Omaha; Hamilton, Ontario; Toronto; Dayton, O.; Milwaukee; Denver; New Orleans, Pittsburgh; San Francisco; Spokane; Seattle; Winnepeg, and Cleveland.

The information reported concerning these plants includes the following points: Date of installation of plants; kind of work done, either new, repair, or "cut work;" cost of physical plant and equipment; capacity in square yards; statistics concerning amount of work done, with cost; number of men employed, and wages paid; cost of materials used; number of working days in the year; description of mechanical equipment; and occasionally comments on the condition of the asphalt streets in these cities.

In a number of appendices detailed information is presented on the subject of asphalt paving work, with a sketch of the proposed municipal plant in the district. These subjects are: (1) volume of asphalt work; (2) number of days work was suspended on account of weather conditions, 1911–1912; (3) materials required for asphalt topping and binder; (4) estimated cost of asphalt pavement; (5) materials required for concrete base and cost of same; (6) cost of hauling materials for ashalt pavement; (7) cost of inspection; (8) operations of portable plant in November, 1912; (9) comparison of prices of work under contract with estimate cost, if work is performed by the district; (10) estimate of cost of installation of municipal plant for the district.

Acting on this report, the commissioners of the District of Columbia have included in their estimates for 1913–1914, an item of $90,000 for establishing and operating a municipal asphalt plant.

Charles Wells Reeder.[1]

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[1] Ohio State University Library.

New York City Art Commission.—The report of this commission for the year 1911 is especially important, even though two years behind time, because it chronicles the little suspected value of the work of the art commission of the city of New York, and gives some idea of what that city has been saved from through the operations of this commission.

Readers of the National Municipal Review probably realize that this commission is an unpaid commission, formed under a state law which assures a membership of high grade. Robert W. De Forest is president and John Quincy Adams is the efficient acting secretary. The commission has offices in the old city hall in New York City, and it treats its work seriously insisting on being consulted about everything that is to be placed in the public eye and on the public property.

The report in question is broad in its view and admirable in its form. A consultation of it is recommended to those who are desirous of seeing American cities put in possession of power to prevent the assaults of bad taste and self interest which so seriously interfere at present with city efficiency.

J. Horace McFarland.

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Municipal Surveys.—The growing interest in municipal government is evidenced by the number of reports issued presenting a general survey of municipal organization and activities in various cities. Such reports are being prepared in different communities by different methods and with widely varying scope, Peter White, C.P.A., has prepared a detailed report to the committee of audit of Bridgport, Conn., on the organization and procedure of each permanent board, commission, committee and office of the city government,—except those connected with courts, education and elections. The board of education of Newark, N. J., has published a series of twenty-eight leaflets on various aspects and problems of local government in that community. The Wilksbarre, Pa., chamber of commerce has issued a brief report on efficiency of the Wilkesbarre city councils, by R. Nelson Bennett, which undertakes to show that many of the improvements secured under commission government are already practiced by the city councils and government of Wilkesbarre. The new commission government of Jackson, Miss., has issued (April 1, 1913) the first number of the *Jackson Commission Government Record*, to be issued quarterly, giving a record of the proceedings and work of the municipal government.

⁂

Municipal Appropriations.—The greater attention now being given to the preparation of municipal budgets is illustrated by the publication and analysis of detailed statements of appropriations for a number of cities. The efficiency division of the Chicago civil service commission published, under date of November 15, 1912, a report on an inquiry into appropriations and expenditures of the bureau of streets of that city, with special reference to the bases of distribution by wards. Baltimore has published in full the appropriation ordinance for the year 1913, giving a detailed statement of the amounts appropriated for each department and office. The Dayton (Ohio) bureau of municipal research has published a report on the appropriations of that city for the fiscal half year ending June 30, 1912.

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St. Louis Municipal Accounts.—Under date of April 15, Comptroller B. J. Taussig of St. Louis submitted to the municipal assembly, with his approval, a comprehensive report by Peter White, C. P.A., who has had charge of an investigation and reorganization of the accounting system of the city, covering a period of two years. This includes extensive discussions, with copies of forms, of such matters as uniform classification of accounts, reorganization of budget procedure, control of disbursements, reorganization of departmental procedure and general considerations.[1]

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Municipal Finances in Minnesota.—Prof. E. V. Robinson of the University of Minnesota and director of the department of research and statistics of the Minnesota tax commission has prepared for the commission a valuable report on the cost of government in Minnesota. The larger part of this report presents the results of a comprehensive survey of muncipal finances, including cities, villages and school districts.

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[1] See Department or Notes and Events, p. 481

DEPARTMENT OF REPORTS AND DOCUMENTS

II. BIBLIOGRAPHICAL

EDITED BY MISS ADELAIDE R. HASSE

Chief of the Division of Documents, New York Public Library

General

CITIZENS' UNION OF NEW YORK CITY. The work of the Citizens' Union, 1912–1913. 32 p. 12°.

CITIZENS' MUNICIPAL COMMITTEE OF NEW YORK CITY. Statement of the plans and purposes of the committee. 2 leaves. 8°.

The "platform" of the fusion party. This body was organized in the Spring of 1913 with the object of securing to the city in the municipal election due in November 1913, a government exempt from Tammany control.

CIVIC CLUB OF ALLEGHENY COUNTY. Annual report, 1911–1912. 48 p. illus. 8°.

An exceptionally vital organization. A copy of the report will be a valuable addition to every collection bearing on civic progress.

CIVIC CLUB OF BERKELEY, Calif. Berkeley Civic Bulletin. Vol. 1, no. 9–12. March–May, 1913. p. 77–132. 8°.

No. 9. March 15. Detailed review of pending California legislation of general interest (constitutional amendments; educational legislation; social relations; workmen's compensation; blue sky legislation; game legislation; moral legislation; red light injunction and abatement bill).

No. 10. Not seen.

No. 11. April 15. Social centers (social center movement in the United States; social center movement in Berkeley; proposed plan for organization of social centers in Berkeley).

No. 12. May 15. Report of the committee on water supply to the Civic Club of Berkeley. May 15, 1913. 2 maps.

Contains a chapter on the history of the Hetch-Hetchy water supply, and one on the public ownership of water supplies.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA SUFFRAGE LEAGUE. The government of the District of Columbia. A memorial. Washington, 1913. 18 p. 8°. (U. S. 62. cong. 3 sess., sen. doc. 1138.)

GALE, ZONA. Civic improvement in the little towns. March, 1913. 28 p. 8°.

American Civic Association, Union Trust Building, Washington, D.C. Series 2, no. 7. Price, single copies, 25 cents.

KAISER, JOHN B. American municipal documents. A librarian's view. 4 p.

Reprinted from Special Libraries, June, 1913.

KONGRESS FÜR STÄDTEWESEN, 1. Düsseldorf, 1912. Verhandlungen. 1913. Bd. 1–2. illus. 4°.

Published under the auspices of the city of Düsseldorf, by A. Bagel, Düsseldorf at $2.25.

OHIO. Ohio roster of township and municipal officers. 1912–13. 491 p.

Compiled by Chas. H. Graves, secretary of state.

PASADENA, Calif. Final report of the mayor to the city council of Pasadena, May 5, 1913. 32 p. 8°.

This report is made at the close of the administration of Mayor William Thum. The distinctive feature of the report is the explicit and detailed presentation of the work of government. Pasadena is first and foremost a residential city, which, the mayor points out, creates civic demands not existing with a non-resident population. Considerable attention is given to the public utilities of Pasadena.

TAX ASSOCIATION BULLETIN, Oakland, Calif., monthly.

No. 5. May 1913. The legal and legislative side of municipal and county reorganization. 4 p.

TORONTO, ONT. Toronto Civic Guild Monthly Bulletin. v. 2, no. 2–5. December 1912, January–February 1913. 4°.

Vol. 2, no. 2. Miscellaneous, chiefly relating to town planning.

Vol. 2, no. 3. Town planning and civic improvement. An address by C. H. Mitchell, first vice-president of the Toronto Civic Guild at the inaugural meeting of the Ontario Town Planning Congress, at Berlin, December 11, 1912. 12 p.

Vol 2, no. 5. Skyscrapers on narrow streets (leading article). 8 p.

Special Legislation Number. Text of city and suburban plans act (1912). Apartment house problem. Height of buildings. Street widening. Preservation of scenic beauty. A New Brunswick Town planning act. The Park situation in Toronto. 8 p.

The Bulletin is published by the Toronto Civic Guild as evidence of the Guild's deep interest in town planning and improvement. The secretary of the Guild is Frederick L. Riggs, 923 Traders Bank Building, Toronto. A feature of the Bulletin is a list of magazine articles in each number bearing on town planning and improvement.

Weil, A. Leo. Present day evils and public sentiment. An address before the alumni and members of the Washington Literary Society and the faculty and students of the University of Virginia, February 22, 1913. 18 p. 8°.

On the ideals of citizenship.

See also below under the heading "Water Supply" the title beginning "Discussion of Depreciation."

Accounting

See also below under the heading "Water Supply" the title beginning "Discussion of Depreciation."

Accounting System of the Maryland State Roads Commission. (Engineering and Contracting. April 16, 1913, p. 449–451.)

Taken from a paper read by H. G. Shirley, chief engineer of the commission, on October 2, 1912, before the American Good Roads Association. The fact that it is a practical paper on a method applicable to municipal accounting, a subject very much on the tapis at the moment, seemed to warrant the inclusion of this title.

New York City. Bureau of municipal research. Handbook of municipal accounting. 1913. xxx, 318 p. 8°.

New York State. Comptroller's office. Uniform system of accounting for cities of the second class. 1912. vi. 116 p. 8°.

Prescribed by the comptroller in accordance with section 36 of the general municipal law.

Oakland, Calif. Tax Association. Bulletin no. 4.

See below under the heading "Taxation."

St. Louis, Mo. Comptroller's office. Special report transmitting report of the bureau of revision of accounts and methods submitted to the municipal assembly. April 15, 1913. 26 p., 49 forms. 4°.

The comptroller is B. J. Taussig. The work of investigation and reorganization of the accounting system of the city was carried out under authority of city ordinance 25,780, by Peter White, C.P.A.

State (The) Uniform System of Accounting. Established under ordinance. Description and explanation for towns and cities. 1913. 14 leaves. 8°.

Describing the books and forms to be used by each officer, the manner in which they are to be used, the clerical duties of each officer, and the manner and form of making his monthly reports. Manufactured, designed and installed by The News-Dispatch Printing & Auditing Company, Shawnee, Okla.

Bill Boards and Out-Door Advertising

Montreal, Canada. By-law concerning illuminated signs. Adopted December, 1912. 3 p. 8°.

Bridges

Bowen, S. W. Municipal bridge approach, St. Louis. (Engineering News, v. 64, no. 3. January 16, 1913. 14 columns, 10 half tones)

Koester, Frank. Bridges and bridge approaches. (American City, May 1913, p. 467–472, illus.)

The fourth of a series of articles on engineering in city planning, embodying some of the many practical lessons which American cities may learn from European practice.

Maintenance of Great City Bridges. (Engineering Record. v. 67, no. 4. January 25, 1913. 7½ columns, 5 half-tones.)

New York City. Department of bridges. Annual report for the year ending December 31, 1912. Embracing a summary of reports for the years 1905–1912 inclusive. 357 p., plates, folding diagrs. 8°.

No reports had been printed by this department since that for 1904 was issued. Special attention has been given to the proposed architectural and traffic developments of the terminals of the four great East River bridges of Manhattan borough.

Building Construction

Ackerman, Frederick L Building laws and their disastrous influence upon tall buildings. (Journal American Institute of Architects. May 1913, p. 192–195.)

Cubitt, Horace. The London building law and the development of property. (Architect and Contract Reporter, London. v. 89. no. 2301. January 24, 1913. 3 columns.)

New York City. Ordinances. Building and health laws and regulations affecting the city of New York. The building code, the sanitary code, the tenement house law, etc. 1913. 96 p. 4°.

Brookln Eagle Library, No. 121. Price, 25 cents. Includes plumbing rules and regulations as approved by the several borough superintendents of buildings; Regulations of the bureau of buildings for the testing of new materials of construction; Revised regulations of the bureau of buildings covering the erection and conversion of buildings to be used for the purpose of moving pictures shows, music halls or any other public entertainment for the accomodation of not more than 300 people; General order of February 13, 1912, relative to fireproof booths for moving pictures; Rules governing buildings used for dancing schools; Rules and regulations of the bureau of buildings governing open air moving picture and vaudeville shows; Regulations for the construction, inspection and operation of elevators; Do. governing the constuction of fire escapes; Do. governing the construction, alteration, operation and inspection of mechanical amusement devices and escalators; Do. reinforced concrete regulations; Provisions contained in permit from bureau of highways to place building materials on street; Resolutions adopted by the board of estimate and apportionment governing width of roadways and sidewalks intended to prevent erection of buildings which would encroach on streets laid out upon the city map; Ordinance regulating placing of electric signs; Ordinances regulating courtyard and partition fences and walls.

The above regulations and ordinances accompany and supplement the building code. The following regulations etc. accompany the sanitary code and the tenement house law: Lodging house regulations; Regulations for the construction of new fire escapes; Bulletins 20–24 issued by the Tenement House Department; Blasting regulations—rules of the municipal explosives commission relating to explosives and blasting; Garage regulations; Sale of fireworks.

Ray, David H. The future skyscraper. (Building Progress. v. 3, no. 1. January 1913, 13 columns. 5 halftones.)

Mr. Ray is chief engineer of the bureau of buildings of New York City.

Some Important Cases under the London Building Acts. (Journal Royal Society of British Architects, London. v. 20, ser. 3, no. 1. November 9, 1912. 5½ columns.)

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Toronto, Ont. Toronto Civic Guild Monthly Bulletin. v. 2, no. 5.

See above under the heading "General."

Buildings

Aggrandissement de l'Hotel de Ville de Paris et transformation des Services Municipal et Général. (l'Architecture, Paris. 26^e annee, no. 1. January 4, 1913. 2½ columns. 5 page plate 2 cuts. No. 2. January 11, 1913. 1 column, 4 halftones and 4 page plates.)

Cab Stands

New York City. Mayor's message with text of proposed general cab ordinance framed by a specially appointed commission. April 22, 1913. (City Record. April 24, 1913. p. 3773–3775.)

—— Report of the special committee appointed February, 1912, to investigate the hack and taxicab situation. May 27, 1913. (City Record, May 22, 1913, p. 4815–4819; May 29, 1913, p. 5071–5073.)

The ordinance submitted by this committee was signed by Mayor Gaynor on June 3, 1913. The text is printed in full in The City Record of June 7, 1913, p. 5381–5382.

Census

Moscow, Russia. Travaux du Bureau Statistique de la ville de Moscou. Livraison 1. Principaux résultats préliminaires du dénombrement de Moscou du 6 mars 1912. Partie 1. Relevé de la population, logements et immeubles de Moscou et faubourgs. 1913. 38 p. 4°.

Naples, Italy. Relazione sul V censimento generale della popolazione e sul I censimento industriale. Napoli, 1912. 35, 83 p. 19 diagrs., 2 maps. Obl. f°.

A more elaborate report than any yet attempted by any American city. The diagrams, or charts, show among other facts, numbers of families, congestion and density of population, area of streets and open places, of monuments, of public and private gardens.

Charities

Cleveland, O. Chamber of Commerce. The Cleveland federation for charity and philanthropy as proposed by the committee on benevolent associations of the Cleveland Chamber of Commerce. January 7, 1913. 32 p. 8°.

Youngstown, O. Central Council of Social Agencies. Report. 16 p. 8°.

List of officers and members, text of constitution and by-laws, with a special report by the chairman, J. Warner, on the clearing house of the council.

Charters

Cleveland, O. Chamber of Commerce. Proposals for the city charter. Report of the committee on legislation, with appendices: Reports of committee on city finances and committee on municipal sanitation. Adopted by the board of directors, April 4, 1913. 18 p. 8°.

Gilbertson, H. S. Progress of charter reform. (American City, May, 1913, p. 487–488.)

A short article, but full of the sort of information frequently called for at the library reference desk.

New York Public Library. List of works relating to city charters, ordinances, and collected documents. 1913. 383 p. 4°.

Reprinted from the Bulletin of the Library. A misleading title. It is not a list of works relating to city charters, etc., but a list of charters, ordinances and collected documents.

Portland, Ore. Charter of the city of Portland as amended. Including amendments providing for a commission form of government drafted by the charter committee appointed in pursuance of a resolution adopted by the Council, February 13, 1913. 180 p. 8°.

Amendments providing for commission form of government were voted on May 3, 1913. Compiled and arranged by A. L. Barbur, auditor of Portland. The new charter adopted by Portland, Ore., makes some interesting changes in regard to the power of the city government over public utility corporations operating in the city. The commission now has the general supervision and power of regulation of all the utilities operating there, and provides for as rigid an accounting from the public service corporations as from the city officials themselves. The city also has the power to own and operate public utility corporations which it may construct itself or take over, paying for it by the issue of public utility certificates secured by a mortgage on the utility purchased and not a general obligation to the city. The commission has the power of compulsory investigation of corporations and the right to determine what is the reasonable rate for service rendered. Franchises are to be regarded as property and taxed as such, with the additional provision that no franchise shall be granted for a longer period than twenty-five years and that there shall be no exclusive franchises.

Child Welfare

Hartford, Conn. Fourth annual report of the juvenile commission for the year ending April 30, 1913. 87 p. 8°.

Notable as being the first and up to the present time the only such municipal commission in the United States. This report is of especial value because during the year covered by it a committee of the commission undertook to make a survey of that portion of the population of Hartford under 12 years of age. In addition the report comprises, p. 51-73, a bibliography of child welfare.

City Planning

Atterbury, Grosvenor. Model towns in America. January, 1913. 9 leaves, illus. 8°.

National Housing Association Publications no 17. Address 105 E. 22d st., New York City. Reprinted from The New Suburb Number of Scribner's Magazine. Price 10 cents the copy. Hopedale, Mass., Roland Park, Md., Gary, Ind., Whitinsville, Mass., Forest Hills Gardens, Long Island, N. Y.

Clay, S. H. City building. 1913. 164 p. 8°.

Mr. Clay is secretary of the Lexington, Ky., Commercial Club. The purpose of the book is to give practical help to commercial secretaries in promoting civic welfare. Price, $5.

Ford, Frederick L. Report on railroad station approach and harbor front improvements. 1912. 32 p., 10 plates, 1 map. 8°.

Ford, George B. Scientific city planning. (Engineering and contracting. May 14, 1913.)

Paper read at the Fifth National Conference on City Planning, Chicago, May 7.

Garden Village (The), Hull, England. (The Builder, London, v. 104, no. 3653, February 7, 1913, 1½ columns, 6 half-tones.)

Goodrich, E. P. and George B. Ford Housing report to the city plan commission of Newark, N. J. Newark, 1913. 75 p., illus. 8°.

A statement of principles taken from this report is printed in American City, May 1913, p. 473–480.

Great Britain. Report of the departmental committee appointed by the president of the board of agriculture and fisheries to inquire and report as to buildings for small holdings in England and Wales. 1913. 122 p., 37 folding plans. f°.

Price 1s. 3d. While this report chiefly concerns agricultural holdings it is probably of sufficient value to those interested in suburban development to warrant its inclusion here.

Hughes, Harold T. The principles to be observed in laying out towns treated from the architectural standpoint. (Journal Royal Institute of British Architects, v. 20, ser. 3, no. 3, December 7, 1912, 13 p., 8 half-tones; no. 4, December 21, 1912, 8 p.)

Kirksville, Mo. Civic Improvement League. Second annual bulletin of the league. April, 1913. "For a cleaner and more beautiful Kirksville." 44 p., illus. 8°.

Landscape Architecture. A quarterly. April, 1913. City-planning number. p. 97–144. 4°.

Price, 50 cents the copy. Contents: City-planning course at the University of Illinois, by Charles M. Robinson, p. 97–100. A wasteful competition by Charles D. Lay, p. 101–107, illus. (The Joseph Pulitzer Fountain competition in N. Y. City). The Billerica town plan, by Warren H. Manning, p. 108–118, illus. A brief survey of recent city-planning reports in the U. S., by Theodora Kimball, p. 119–134.

Mawson, Thomas H. and H. Vivian. Two notable addresses on town planning and housing. By Messrs. Mawson and Vivian to whom Calgary owes much. 1913. 20 p. 8°.

Printed by the Calgary, Alberta, city planning commission.

New York Public Library. Selected list of references bearing on the city plan of New York. 1913. 15 p. 4°.

Reprinted from the Bulletin of the Library for May, 1913. Official Town Planning and Expert Advice. Architects' and Builders' Journ. v. 37, no. 945 Feb. 15, 1913. 2½ columns.)

Perrot, Emile G. Discussion on garden cities. 1913. 6 leaves, illus. 8°.

Description of an industrial village on garden city lines, being built at Marcus Hook, Penn., for the American Viscose Co. by Ballinger and Perrot, architects and Engineers, Philadelphia.

Pope, Robert A. A model suburb designed by R. A. Pope, town planner, for the Boston Dwelling House Company, at Forest Hill, Boston. 4 p. 8°.

Bulletin 1 of the Suburban Planning Association, Philadelphia.

Portland, Ore. Greater Portland. Official organ of Greater Portland Plans Association. vol. 1, no. 2. March, 1913. 14 p., illus. 4°.

Special parks and playgrounds number. Five cents the copy.

Pray, James S. and Theodora Kimball. A city-planning classification. Preliminary outline (printed as manuscript). Harvard University Press, May, 1913, 11 p. 4°.

Price, ten cents the copy.

Public Ledger, Philadelphia.

On March 4, 1913, the Philadelphia Public Ledger, a widely known daily paper, began the publication of a weekly section devoted to city planning, architecture and real estate. The chairman of the committee on public information of the American Institute of Architects has been assisting the Public Ledger in the presentation of material. He suggests that here is an opportunity which lies open in other cities. Certainly it is unnecessary to enlarge upon the educational possibilities with which such work might be fraught.

Putnam, Frank. City government in Europe. Houston's inquiry into municipal organization and administration in the principal cities of Great Britain and Germany; with a report of findings and recommendations for Houston's guidance in developing a great seaport on the Gulf of Mexico. Published by the City of Houston, Texas, 1913. 137 p., pls. 8°.

St. Louis, Mo. City plan commission. St. Louis central traffic-parkway recommended by the city plan commission. July, 1912. 31 p., pls., 1 folding map. 8°.

Toronto, Ont., Toronto Civic Guild Monthly Bulletin, v. 2, no. 3, 5.

See above under heading "General."

Town Planning from an Engineering Aspect. (Builders' Guide, Philadelphia, v. 28, no. 1, January 1, 1913, 5½ columns).

Unwin, Raymond. Notes on the town planning act memorandum. (Journal Royal Institute of British Architects, v. 20. ser. 3, no. 4; December 21, 1912. 3½ columns.)

Wacker, Charles H. The Chicago plan. (Journal Western Society of Engineers, January, 1913, p. 15–21.)

Civil Service

Chicago, Ill. Civil service commission. Analysis of employment and departmental organization charts. March, 1913. Outline report of work of the efficiency division. Civil Service Commission, 1909–1912. 99 p. 4°.

Civil Service Reform Association. Bibliography of civil service reform. 3d edition. Published by the women's auxiliary to the Civil Service Reform Association. 1913. 72, xvi p. 8°.

Commission Government

Munro, William B. Should Canadian cities adopt commission government? January, 1913. 13 p. Bulletin no. 6 of the Departments of History and Political and Economic Science in Queen's University, Canada.

United States. Library of Congress Select list of references on commission government for cities. 1913. 70 p. 4°.

Finance

Boston, Mass. Finance Commission. Reports and communications. vol. 8. 1913. 205 p. 8°.

The Boston finance commission is essentially a probing commission. The original act creating the commission contemplated a temporary body. A subsequent act continued the commission. Owing to the manner of publication the collector may have some difficulty in collating a file of the reports. For his benefit an outline collation is given.

First Commission: Appointed under order of the city council of Boston of March 7, 1907.

REPORTS

Vol. 1. Appointments, organization and communications. Boston, 1908. 560 p.

Vol. 2. Reports and communications. Boston, 1909. 301 p.

Vol. 3. Reports of Metcalf and Eddy, consulting civil engineers, upon the water department, the sewer division of the street department, and miscellaneous matters. Boston, 1909. 1226 p.

Vol. 4. Report of Samuel Whinery, consulting civil engineer, upon the street departments, Boston, 1909. 333 p.

Second commission: Appointed under section 17, Chapter 486, acts of 1909. A permanent commission appointed by the Governor.

REPORTS

Vol. 5. Appointments, organization and communications. Boston, 1910. 143 p.

Vol. 6. Not seen.

Vol. 7. Reports and communications. Boston, 1912. 320, 256 p.

In a number of instances parts of these volumes have been issued separately with new pagination. The volumes are issued both in paper and in cloth binding. Not all the volumes bear a volume number. These volumed reports do not correspond to the annual reports made to the General Court.

California. Controller's office. Annual report of financial transactions of municipalities and counties for the year 1912. 107 p. 8°.

Compiled and published by authority of chap. 550, statutes of 1911. This is the second report made under the act.

Massachusetts. Joint special committee on municipal finance. Report January, 1913. 103 p. 8°.

House document 1803, 1913.

New York City. Finance department. Financial summary for the quarter ending March 31, 1913. 25 p. 8°.

The first number of a new series. In it the comptroller proposes giving a current summary of the city's financial activities. In this first number it is shown that the fiscal transactions of the city equal in amount those of the ten next largest cities in the country combined.

Government

Bridgeport, Conn. A study of the organization and procedure of each permanent board, commission, committee and office (except those concerned with courts, education and elections). Report of Peter White, C.P.A. (Ill., Mo.), to the committee of audit. February, 1913. 170, 112 p. 4°.

The supplement (112 p.) contains a digest of the statutes and ordinances governing each permanent board, commission, committee and office of the city except those concerned with courts, eduction, and elections. It is prepared by Fred. W. Powell. The address of Peter White is Harris Trust Building, Chicago, Ill.

Home Rule

Municipal Government Association of New York State. Home Rule Advocate. vol. 1, no. 1. May, 1913. 12 p. 4°.

Housing

Albany, Home Building Company. History and development of the Albany Home Building Company, Albany. December, 1912. 20 p., illus. 8°.

Aronovici, Carol. Report on housing conditions in Springfield, Mass. Prepared for the Housing Committee of the Union Relief Association, December 1, 1912. 39 p., illus. 8°.

Bosworth, Marion. Housing conditions in main line towns. An investigation made under the direction of the committee on investigation of the Main Line Housing Association. n.d. 46 p., illus. 8°.

An investigation of housing conditions in certain suburbs of Philadelphia on the main line of the Pennsylvania Railroad.

Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy. The housing problem literature in central Chicago libraries. 1912. 40 p. 8°.

Bulletin 16 of the School.

Norton, Grace P. Chicago housing conditions, VII. Two Italian districts. (American Journal of Sociology, January, 1913, p. 509–542, illus.)

Earlier articles in the series have dealt with housing conditions among the Jews, the Bohemians on the west side, the Lithuanians back of the stockyards, the Poles on the northwest side, the Slavic people clustering about the steel mills in South Chicago, and the negro.

Veiller, Lawrence. Room overcrowding and the lodger evil. February, 1913. 15 p. 8°.

National Housing Association Publications no. 18. Address 105 E. 22d str., New York City. Price, five cents the copy.

Woodward, William. Building by-laws and regulations as affecting the housing of the working classes. (Architect and Contract Reporter, London, v. 89, no. 2304, February 14, 1913, 4 columns.)

Liquor

New York City. Board of inebriety. Laws relating to public intoxication and inebriety. Revised to March 15, 1913. 8 p. 8°.

Markets

New York City. Report of the special committee on push-carts and markets, April 22, 1913. (City Record, April 24, 1913, p. 3763–3764; May 1, 1913, p. 4021–4022.

The committee of seven was appointed by the rules committee of the board of aldermen, pursuant to a resolution of July 9, 1912. The present report deals only with the push-cart problem for the reason that action on this subject was believed by the committee to be an immediate need. A further report on public markets is promised at an early day.

The mayor, on December 18, 1912, appointed a committee of three citizens to consider the push-cart question. No report appears, as yet, to have been made by the mayor's committee. In 1906 a commission appointed by Mayor McClellan, made an extended report on this subject peculiar to the metropolis, and of no mean import relative to the cost of living, congestion of population and traffic in those localities where the push-cart system obtains.

SPIEGELBERG, MRS. FLORA. Some suggestions in regard to the present agitation for the establishment of municipal wholesale terminal markets from a consumer's point of view. 1913. 15 p. 8°.

Mrs. Spiegelberg, is a member of the advisory board to the mayor's terminal market commission of New York City.

WILLIAMSON, C. C. Selected references on markets and marketing. (Special Libraries, v. 4, no. 3, March, 1913, p. 49–52.)

Milk Supply

DUNKIRK, N. Y. Milk ordinance. Its production, care and sale. Passed by the common council on February 4, 1913. 2 leaves. 4°.

MARTEL, H. La production et le contrôle sanitaire du lait destiné aux Parisiens. 1912. (Annales d'Hygiene Publique, v. 18, p. 344–360.)

NEW YORK MILK COMMITTEE. Infant mortality and milk stations. By Philipp Van Ingen and Paul E. Taylor. 1913. 167 p. 8°.

Address: New York Milk Committee, 105 E. 22d street, N. Y. City. Price $1.00.

—— Sixth annual report for the year ending December 31, 1912. 79 p. 8°.

A citizens' committee, the admirable work of which in preventing the waste of infant lives, can not be too highly commended to the attention of all civic workers. The splendid efforts of this committee have succeeded in reducing infant mortality in New York City to 105, during 1912. The metropolis is thereby placed in the first rank among the larger cities of the world in the work of baby saving.

Motion Pictures

NATIONAL BOARD OF CENSORSHIP OF MOTION PICTURES. Suggestions for a model ordinance for regulating motion picture theatres. 1913. 15 p. 8°.

Address: 50 Madison Ave., New York City, Price ten cents the copy.

NATIONAL BOARD OF FIRE UNDERWRITERS. Suggested ordinance to regulate the installation, operation and maintenance of motion picture machines. November, 1912. 8 p. 8°.

Adopted by the National Board of Fire Underwriters and the National Fire Protection Association.

NEW YORK CITY. Report of the minority of the committee on laws and legislation transmitting text of an ordinance relative to motion picture theatres March 18, 1913. (City Record, March 1913, p. 2509–2510.)

—— Report of the majority and minority of the committee on laws and legislation submitting the Folks ordinance providing for the regulation of moving picture theatres. (City Record, May 8, 1913, p. 4296–4299.)

—— Committee on Law and Legislation. Report submitting an ordinance relative to motion picture theatres. (City Record, May 22, 1913, p. 4823–4826.)

—— Mayor Gaynor's message vetoing the Folks moving picture ordinance. June 3, 1913. (City Record, June 4, 1913, p. 5279–5282.)

This is the second time since the first introduction of a moving picture ordinance in New York City on December 12, 1911, that Mayor Gaynor has sent in a veto message on the ordinance. On the first occasion the insertion of a censorship proviso elicited the mayor's veto. In the present case the mayor vetoed the ordinance, because, at the instance of the proprietors of the cheap theatres, the provision in the ordinance, as framed, regulating the seating capacity of galleries in motion picture theatres, was cut out of the ordinance as passed, the mayor claiming that by this action an injustice had been done to the proprietors of the "movies."

Municipal Museums

ST. LOUIS, MO. City Art Museum. Special exhibition catalogue. A collection of small bronzes by American artists. Series 1913. no. 7. 12 p. obl. 8°.

Municipal Ownership

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA. Letter from the President of the board of commissioners transmitting report of investigation made as to the desirability of establishing a municipal asphalt plant and recommending the establishment of such a plant. December 31, 1912. 45 p. 8°.

U. S. 62 cong., 3 sess., House doc. 1195.

THUM, WILLIAM, AND C. W. KOINER. Answers to criticisms on Pasadena's municipal light plant. 1913. 15 p. 8°.

Reprinted from the *Pasadena Star* of February 10, 1913. The object of the article was to analyze the alleged unjust attacks made on Pasadena's municipal lighting plant, in order that the owners might better understand their opponents.

UNITED STATES. Committee on appropriations. Municipal asphalt plant for the District of Columbia. Supplement to hearings before sub-committee. 62d Congress, 3d session. 1913. 16 p. 8°.

Municipal Papers

ATLANTIC CITY, N. J. Atlantic City Commission Government. Published monthly by the city. vol. 1, no. 1. March 10, 1913.

LOS ANGELES, Calif. Los Angeles Municipal News, v. 1–52, April 17, 1912; April 9, 1913.

This paper was discontinued with the issue of April 9, 1913.

Ordinances

See also under "Charters." Ordinances on a special subject are entered under that subject; see, for instance, Water Supply.

NEW YORK CITY. Code of ordinances and the sanitary code, the building code, the park regulations with addenda of all amendments to January 1, 1913, and regulations of municipal explosives commission, adopted January 3, 1912, as amended to January 1, 1913. Compiled and annotated by Arthur F. Cosby. New York: The Banks Law Publishing Company, 1913. xvii, 511 p. 8°.

There are no copies of this for free distribution. The price is $2.50. It is revised annually.

Pageants

LANGDON, WILLIAM C. The pageant of St. Johnsbury, Vt. (American City, May, 1913, p. 481–487.)

The pageant of St. Johnsbury was celebrated in 1912. The "book of the words" of the pageant, which, it seems, is the proper form of expression when referring to pageants, may be obtained from Charles E. Peck, secretary of the pageant committee, St. Johnsbury, Vt. Price, 25 cents the copy; postage 3 cents. In 1911 a pageant of Thetford was celebrated in Thetford, Vt., and the book of the words of this pageant may be obtained from Miss Margaret Fletcher, secretary of the pageant committee, Thetford. Price 25 cents the copy; postage 3 cents.

Parks and Playgrounds

HALLE A. S., Germany. Beiträge zur Statistik der Stadt Halle a. S. Heft 21. Die Sportvereine in Halle und die Sportanlagen in Halle, 1911–1912. 77 p. 8°.

Outdoor recreation centers in Halle compared with those of other cities.

LIGUE (LA) POUR LES ESPACES LIBRES, L'ASSAINISSEMENT ET LES SPORTS. Declassement des fortifications et conversion de la zone en espaces libres. Paris, n.d. 31 p., 4 maps. 8°.

M. Leopold Mourgues is secretary of the Ligue. Address Paris, Rue Scribe, 7. Price, 1 fr.

MAWSON, THOMAS. The laying out of public parks. Report to the Preston, England, corporation. (Surveyor and Municipal and County Engineer, London. January 10, 1913. p. 47–48.)

NOLEN, JOHN. General plan of a park and playground system for New London, Conn. Boston: Press of Geo. H. Ellis Company. 1913. 41 p., illus., 1 plan. 8°.

PARKER, GEORGE A. Making the parks self-supporting. (Park and Cemetery, Chicago, v. 22, no. 11, January, 1913, 8 columns.)

PORTLAND, Ore. Annual reports of the Park Board, 1908–1912. 123 p., plates, 7 maps. 8°.

These reports had not, it seems, heretofore been published separately. The Park Board believes that at the commencement of the park project which is being actively prosecuted, it is very vital that public understanding of it shall be such as to insure support when it is imperative and toward that end it proposes henceforth to publish separate annual reports.

In addition to the regular administrative reports this volume includes a special communication from the park board to the citizens of Portland (p. 77 et seq) urging immediate action on the need of sufficient park holdings. Maps of various American cities showing space given over to park property by each city as well as charts showing respectively the per cent of city area comprised in park property and the number of persons to each acre of park property make the report especially useful.

See also above under "City Planning," the subtitle. Portland, etc.

Schultze, Ernst. Amerikanische Volksparke. (Körperliche Erziehung, v. 8, p. 291–298; 355–365, October, December, 1912.)

Description of parks, playgrounds and baths in New York, Chicago, Boston and other American cities. Well illustrated.

Shipps, Guy L. Municipal recreation centers. (Kindergarten-Primary Magazine, v. 25, p. 96–99, December, 1912.)

An address at the International Kindergarten Union Meeting, Des Moines, Ia. Gives a short history of the playground movement.

Toronto, Ont. Toronto Civic Guild Monthly Bulletin. v. 2, no. 5.

See above under the heading "General."

Police

Citizens' Union of New York. The Searchlight, v. 3, no. 2, March, 1913. Special police number. Police reconstruction. 8 p. 8°.

City Club of Philadelphia. Bulletin, v. 6, no. 18, April 23, 1913, p. 404–416.

This number is taken up with a consideration of police progress in Philadelphia during 1912. There are addresses by Hon. George D. Porter, Director of the Department of Public Safety, Captain M. H. Ray, aide to director Porter and Major James Robinson, superintendent of police. There is also a chart of the organization of the police department and a sample alarm.

New York City. Rules and regulations Police Department, City of New York. May 15, 1913. 101, xxi p. 12°.

—— Police department investigation committee ("Curran Committee"). Final Report of the special committee on investigation of the police department, June 10, 1913. (City Record, June 12, 1913, p. 5603-5632.)

At the time of writing the report had not been printed in pamphlet form, nor was the chairman of the committee certain that it would be so printed. A very limited number of copies of the hearings held by the committee have been printed. They are held by the official stenographer, W. Goldburg, 170 Broadway, New York City, at $95 the set.

Port Development

Boulogne s. m., France. Chambre de Commerce. Port de Boulogne sur Mer. No. 8. Plan du port et de la ville de Boulogne. September, 1912. Scale 1:10,000. 29 x 40½ in.

With marginal text relative to traffic and navigation and construction of the harbor.

Cresson, B. J. and Charles W. Staniford. Report on the mechanical equipment of New York harbor. December 19, 1912. 67 p., 36 plates, 1 folded plan, 11 diagrams. 8°.

Report no. 22, New York City department of docks and ferries.

Great Britain. Board of trade. Port of London. Copy of order authorizing (certain therein named persons) to hold inquiry and report to the board of trade upon certain by-laws made by the port of London authority as to the licensing of lightermen and watermen in the port of London, together with copy of their report and of correspondence arising thereon. 1913. 11 p. f°. (Cd. 6700.)

Price 1½d. Address H. M. Stationery Office, London.

Sample, William C. Dock design and construction in Fort William and Port Arthur, Ont. (Canadian Engineer, May 1, 1913, p. 643–648, illus.)

Staniford, Charles W. Modern pier construction in New York harbor. (Proceedings American Society of Civil Engineers, v. 39, no. 5, May, 1913, p. 1089–1107; illus.)

Toronto, Ont. Toronto waterfront development, 1912–1920. 32 p., illus. 2 foldg. pls. Obl. 4°.

A beautifully equipped volume prepared by the board of harbor commissioners of Toronto. The huge development, which is being planned by the commission appointed under the Act of 1911, is the outcome of coöperation between the Dominion, the American federal government and the municipal government of Toronto. The completed work it is estimated will cost $19,000,000.

Public Utilities

American Cities Company, Jersey City, N. J. Second annual report to the stockholders for the year ended December 31, 1912. 6 leaves. 4°.

Arnold Bion J. In the district court of the United States for the western district of the western division of Missouri. Kansas City Railway and Light Company, complainant no. 3720 vs. Metropolitan Street Railway Company, et al., defendants. Report to Hon. William C. Hook, circuit judge, on the value of the properties of the Metropolitan Street Railway System of Kansas City. In three volumes. v. 1, n.p., n.d., 226 p., folding tables, maps. 8°.

—— Report on an interurban electric railway terminal system for the city of Cincinnati. Submitted to the Cincinnati interurban rapid transit commission. October, 1912. n.p., n.d., 163 p., plates, folding tables. 8°.

—— Recommendations for proposed merger ordinance for surface and elevated railway properties in the city of Chicago, based upon the February 11, 1907, ordinances. Made to the sub-committee of the Committee on Local Transportation of the Chicago City Council. March 6, 1913. 1 leaf, 34 p. 8°.

Byllesby, H. M. The great problem of the public service corporation. December, 1912. 16 p. 8°.

Reprinted from the New York Commercial, December 14, 1912. The H. M. Byllesby Company is a firm of engineers with offices in Chicago, Insurance Exchange Building, and New York, Trinity Building. Other earlier publications of this company are: "Securities of water power companies as investments," ed. 2, March 1912. 59 p. 8°. "The Regulation of public utilities," ed. 2, December 1911. 29 p. 8°. etc. etc.

Chicago Railways Company. Fifth annual report for the year ending January 31, 1913. 4 p. 8°.

—— Report of Henry A. Blair, chairman to the board of directors, April 23, 1913. 31 p. 8°.

Maryland Public Service Commission. The protective Telephone Association of Baltimore city vs. the Chesapeake and Potomac Telephone Company of Baltimore City, etc. Petition and complaint regarding telephone rates and service. Filed March 31, 1913. 50 p., 1 leaf. 8°.

New York City. Board of estimate and apportionment. The City of New York acting by the public service commission for the first district and Manhattan Railway Company, Interborough Rapid Transit Company and New York Municipal Railway Corporation. Certificates, contracts 3 and 4 and supplementary agreements for joint use of tracks constituting "The Dual Subway System." March 19, 1913. v p. 8°.

—— Board of estimate and apportionment. Bureau of franchises. Report no. 113–115. 1913. 4°.

No. 113. January 2, 1913. Need of legislation wih respect to stage coach companies in the City of New York with suggestions as to amendments to the Transportation Corporations Law and the Charter. 14 p., 1 map. 4°.

No. 114. January 27, 1913. Upon the application of the Coney Island and Brooklyn Railroad Company for a franchise to construct and operate a street surface railway along Fourth Avenue. 16 p., 1 map. 4°.

No. 115. March 5, 1913. Upon the applications of the Merchants' Refrigerating Co. and the Harrison Street Cold Storage Co. for a modification of the former company's charter. 8 p. 4°.

—— Board of estimate and apportionment. Resolutions 21–22. 1913. p. 177–281.

No. 21. Approval of proposed contract to be entered into with the New York Municipal Railway Corporation.

No. 22. Same, Interborough Rapid Transit Company.

New York State. Conservation commission. Cheap electricity for all. 15 p. 12°.

Argument for the utilization of the wasted hydro-electric power of the state, and the consequent benefit to every community in the state in improved light and power service.

Plain (A) Statement of the Project to Furnish the People with Cheap Light and Power. 8 p., 1 map. 12°.

This pamphlet is prepared by the committee representing the chambers of commerce and boards of trade of the capital district of New York State, the object being to demonstrate the advantages to be derived from the enactment of the Murtaugh-Patric bills. These bills contemplate a state-wide development and distribution of cheap light and power.

Public Service Corporation of N. J. Fourth annual report for the year ending December 31, 1912. 39 p., 1 map. 8°.

Spring Valley Water Company, San Francisco, Calif. Report of the president of the company for the year ending December 31, 1912. Presented to the shareholders at the annual meeting April 9, 1913. 8 p. 8°.

Victoria, Australia. Railway commissioner. Victorian railways. The application of electric traction to the Melbourne railway system. 1913. viii, 73 p., 26 folding plates. f.°.

The problem in Melbourne, a city of 526,400 population, is the transportation of suburban passenger traffic.

Purchasing of Supplies

See below under the heading "Supplies."

Railway Terminals

The compiler felt warranted in including this heading owing to the fact that both physically and economically railway terminals exert a powerful influence on the municipal corporate body. In New York City, indeed, in the case of the Bush Terminals the municipalization of this huge plant has been under consideration.

Busfield, J. L. Freight terminals and freight handling at terminals. (Canadian Engineer, May 8, 1913, p. 676–680; May 15, 1913, p. 707–710, illus.)

—— Terminal passenger stations: their design and operation. (Canadian Engineer, May 29, 1913, p. 789–791, illus.)

New York City. Report of committee on terminal improvements, Board of Estimate and Improvement, upon organization of rail terminal facilities upon the west side of Manhattan Island and the elimination of surface operation by the New York Central Railroad Company upon the streets of the city. 47 p. 4°.

Opening of the New Grand Central Terminal, New York City. (Engineering Record, v. 67, no. 7, January 15, 1913, 10 columns, 6 half-tones.)

Railway Terminals in Large Cities and the latest Chicago terminal project. (Engineering News, v. 69, no. 9, February 27, 1913, 4 columns.)

Refuse Disposal

Newark, N. J. Facts regarding refuse collections. February, 1913. 3 leaves. nar.. 8°.

Published by the board of street and water commissioners.

Staniford, Charles W. Report on the disposal of city wastes with accompanying map showing opportunities for disposition. February, 1913. 18 p., 1 leaf, 1 folding map. 8.°

New York City. Department of docks and ferries. Report no. 23.
Relates to New York City only.

United States. Bureau of foreign and domestic commerce. City cleaning abroad.

Daily Consular and Trade Reports. May 5, 1913, p. 625–629. Vancouver, Cape Town and Johannesburg only.

Schools

See also "Vocational Work."

Civic Club of Allegheny County. Open-Air School Committee. First report, 1912. 14 p., illus. 8°.

Cleveland, O. Chamber of Commerce. Continuation schools. Report of the committee on education. Adopted by the board of directors, April 4, 1913. 14 p. 8°.

Greenock, Scotland. School board. Annual report (2d) of the school medical inspector for the year ending July 31, 1912. 67 p. 8°.

Hiatt, James S. The child, the school, and the job. 12 p. December, 1912.

A study of child wage-earners based on the school census of Philadelphia, June 1912. Public Education Association.

Hobbs, W. W., and others. An inquiry into the causes of student delinquency. 1912. 22 p. 8°.

Reprinted with additions for private circulation from the School Review, vol. 20. no. 9. November,

1912. The coöperating authors are E. Dudley Parsons, D. H. Holbrook and W. H. Shephard, all of Minneapolis, Minn.

New York City. Commissioners of Accounts. Report on the Brooklyn disciplinary training school for boys. By J. T. Mahoney and H. M. Rice. 1913. 31 p. 8°.

Paisley, Scotland. School board. Annual report (2d) of the medical inspection of school children, 1911–12. 60 p. 8°.

Public Education Association of Philadelphia. Study number 41. The public schools of Philadelphia. A statement of their organization, finance, equipment and activities. 43 p. February, 1913.

Public Education Association of the City of New York. Bulletin 9, February, 1913. Shall the schools serve lunches? 7 p. 8°.

Renfrew County, Scotland. Committee on Secondary Education. Medical Inspection of school children in the year ending July 31, 1912. Summary of results by the advisory school medical officer. 27 p. 8°.

Scotland. Local government board. Report (1st) on the medical inspection of school children in Scotland, 1911. 111 p. 8°.

The report is for the school year ended July, 1911. It was made in December, 1912 and printed in 1913. The report, in addition to a detailed administrative account, contains a history of the medical inspection of schools in Scotland.

Westchester County Research Bureau. School reports in Westchester County. A study of local school conditions by Alexander J. Inglis. 1912. 29 p. 8°.

Efficiency series bulletin 3. Dr. Inglis is Professor of education in Rutgers College. The address of the Westchester County Research Bureau is 15 Court St., White Plains, N. Y.

Sewage Disposal

New York State. Metropolitan sewerage commission. Preliminary reports on the disposal of New York's sewage. VI. Study of the collection and disposal of the sewage of the lower Hudson, lower East River and bay division. February, 1913. 66 p., 8 plates. 4°.

—— Same. VII. Critical reports of Dr. Gilbert J. Fowler of Manchester, England, and Mr. John D. Watson of Birmingham, England, on the projects of the Metropolitan Sewerage Commission, with special reference to the plans proposed for the lower Hudson, lower East River and bay division. February, 1913. 33 p. 4°.

United States. Bureau of foreign and domestic commerce. Disposal of sewage in Europe.

Daily consular and trade reports. March 15, 1913, p. 1281–1291. One of a series of articles on this subject, the first having appeared in 1910.

Scientific Management

Cooke, Morris L. Address on scientific management. 1913.

Speech delivered before the Western Economic Association, at Chicago, March 13, 1913. It was printed in full in the Chicago Inter-Ocean of March 23, 1913. Mr. Cooke is director of public works of Philadelphia, the first city in the nation to test the usefulness of scientific management in municipal affairs.

Smoke Abatement

Benner, R. C. The cost of an industrial nuisance. (American City, May, 1913, p. 496–497.)

Dr. Benner is connected with the Department of Industrial Research, of the University of Pittsburgh.

Chicago, Ill. Department of smoke inspection. Notes on smoke abatement, April 1, 1913. 5 folios.

—— Department of Smoke Inspection. Methods of approaching the smoke problem. April 1, 1913. 5 folios.

Typewritten.

Social Evil

Bureau of Social Hygiene. Commercialized prostitution in New York City. By George J. Kneeland. With a supplementary chapter by Katharine Bement Davis. Introduction by John D. Rockefeller, Jr. New York: The Century Company, 1913. xii, 334 p. 8°.

The address of the Bureau of Social Hygiene is P. O. Box 579, New York City.

The Bureau came into existence as a result of the work of the special grand jury which investigaged the white slave traffic in New York City during the first half of the year 1910. The Bureau was organized in the winter of 1911, the members at present being two well known New York philanthropists, one lawyer and Miss Davis, the superintendent of the New York State Reformatory for Women. One of the first things undertaken by the Bureau was the establishment, adjacent to the Reformatory, of a laboratory of social hygiene. The present volume is the first in the series of publications projected by the Bureau. The second volume, it is announced will be a report on prostitution in Europe by Mr. Abraham Flexner and the third volume will deal with European police systems. The latter will be the work of Raymond B. Fosdick, late commissioner of Accounts of New York City.

Kite, Elizabeth S. Research work in New Jersey. March, 1913. 27 p., 3 charts. 8°.

Published by the New Jersey department of charities and corrections. Contains report on social conditions in the pine belt. The Lackey family. The Dixon-Osborn situation. While not an inquiry into municipal conditions, the volume takes its place with the inquiries being made in various cities looking to the regulation of the social evil.

Philadelphia, Penna., Vice Commission. A report on existing conditions with recommendations to the Hon. Rudolph Blankenburg, mayor of Philadelphia. Published by the Commission, 1913. viii, 164 p. 8°.

Outside of Philadelphia this report is handled by the American Vigilance Association, 156 Fifth Ave., New York City. Price 40 cents the copy.

Syracuse, N. Y. The social evil in Syracuse. Being the report of an investigation of the moral conditions of the city conducted by a committee of eighteen citizens. 1913. 127 p. 8°.

The report is handled by the American Vigilance Association, 156 Fifth Ave., New York City. Price 35 cents the copy.

Social Surveys

Thompson, Carl W. and G. P. Warber. Social and economic survey of a rural township in southern Minnesota. April, 1913. v. 75 p., illus. 4°.

Published by the bureau of research in agricultural economics, department of agriculture, University of Minnesota, as its Studies in Economics, no. 1.

Streets

Average Unit Prices of Pavements constructed in 1912 in 568 cities. (Engineering and Contracting, April 2, 1913, p. 373–389.)

Chicago, Ill. Civil service commission. Report on appropriations and expenditures. Bureau of streets, department of public works. 1912. 64 p., foldg. tables, diagrams. 8°.

Inquiry conducted at request of the committee on finance of the city council and the special commission regarding ward appropriations, July 15–November 15, 1912. Uniform standards and percentages for ward estimates and appropriations.

Connell, William H. Municipal highway organization. (American City, May, 1913, p. 526–530.)

Mr. Connell is chief of the bureau of highways and street cleaning, Philadelphia. The above paper is an abstract of a lecture given in the advanced course in highway engineering at Columbia University, in March, 1913.

Fox, Richard T. Street cleaning in downtown Chicago. (Journal Western Society of Engineers, February, 1913, p. 119–136, illus.)

Haldeman, B. A. The planning of city streets. (Engineering and Contracting, May 14, 1913, p. 544–548.)

Abstract of a paper read before the Engineers' Club of Philadelphia.

Lacombe, C. F. Street lighting systems and fixtures in New York City. (American City, May 1913, p. 516–519, illus.)

New York City. Public works department. Borough of Manhattan. Instructions of the bureau for the guidance of its inspectors of street paving. 1912. 43 p. 12°.

Printed in full in Engineering and Contracting, April 2, 1913, p. 378–384.

Richardson, Clifford. History of Fifth Avenue asphalt pavement, New York. January 4, 1913. 10 p. nar. 8°.

Reprinted from Engineering Record, January 4, 1913.

Smith, Francis P. Maintenance of street asphalt pavements. (Canadian Engineer., May 15, 1913, p. 727–730.)

Abstract of a lecture delivered at Columbia University.

West, Myron H. A report on the layout, paving and general treatment of the streets of San Antonio, Texas. 1913. 22 p. f°.

Supplies

Cleveland, O. Chamber of Commerce. Report of the committee on city finances, recommending the establishment of a city central storeroom. 1913. 8 p. 8°.

Municipal accounting report, no. 3. Approved by the board of directors, April 8, 1913.

New York City. Report submitting plan of proposed system for the central purchase and distribution of supplies for the city of New York. Together with all the forms necessary to carry the system into full operation and effect. March 15, 1913. 72 p. 8°.

Prepared by William A. Prendergast, comptroller. The Merchants' Association of New York distributes this report with an insert slip advising a careful study of this report as it proposes a plan for stopping very extensive waste in city management.

Oakland, Calif. Tax association. Bulletin no. 4.

See below under the heading "Taxation."

Taxation

Cederstrom, Sig. Unjust taxation. Compilation of facts and figures showing injustice and inequality in real estate taxation. 1913. 28 p. 8°.

Privately printed by Mr. Cederstrom at 201 Montague str., Brooklyn, N. Y. Mr. Cederstrom is an expert appraiser. The author has put into this book a lot of figures which he has been collecting for several years, showing that, despite the fact that realty values have receded in many sections of Brooklyn, tax assessors have steadily increased assessments until in many cases the assessed value is far in excess of the market value. The booklet is for the purpose of aiding in the bringing about a readjustment of taxing methods. The whole question of taxing realty is stirring Greater New York at present and many organizations are forming to effect a standardization.

New York Tax Reform Association This association has recently reprinted the following pamphlets. Address: 29 Broadway, N. Y.

Purdy, Lawson. Abolition of personal taxation. Address by the president of the department of taxes and assessments, New York City, before the first state conference on taxation, Utica, N. Y., January, 1911. 1913. 5 p. 8°.

Fell, C. P. Collection of taxes by foreclosure. Address before the second state conference on taxation, Buffalo, N. Y., 1912. 1913. 8 p. 8°.

Rumsey, D. Inter-state comity and double taxation. Address by former asst. corporation counsel, N. Y. City, before the second state conference on taxation, Buffalo, N. Y., 1912. 1913. 8 p. 8°.

Oakland, Calif. Tax association. Bulletin (monthly), no. 4, April, 1913.

No. 4. 4 p. Accounting system for Oakland. Charter fund campaign. City manager plan. Centralized purchasing.

Pennsylvania. An Act amending (certain acts) and providing for the classification of real estate for purposes of taxation into two classes; to wit, the buildings on land, and the land exclusive of building, and by providing for the assessment of a less tax upon the buildings than upon the land exclusive of the buildings, in cities of the second class. Approved May 15, 1913. 4 p. 8°.

Pollock, Walker W. Philadelphia's assessment troubles. A constructive program for their cure. December, 1912. 8 p. 8°.

Prepared for the City Club of Philadelphia. Mr. Pollock is president of the Manufacturers' Appraisal Company, Cleveland, O.

Traffic

See also Cab Stands.

American Society of Municipal Improvements. Report of committee on traffic on streets and roads. Col. J. W. Howard, chairman.

The report was presented to the Society in November 1912. It is reprinted in full with commendatory comment in Surveyor and Municipal and County Engineer of January 10, 1913, p. 38–39.

Arnold, Bion J. and T. W. Mayes. Report on street railway traffic requirements of Toronto.

The report was made public late in April, 1913. A synopsis of it is printed in Canadian Engineer, April 24, 1913, p. 629.

Blanchard, A. H. Value of the traffic census in the economical design of highways. (Engineering and Contracting, January 22, 1913, p. 97.)

Paper read before the American Good Roads Congress, 1912.

Great Britain. Home office. Return showing the number of accidents resulting in death or personal injury known by the police to have been caused by vehicles in streets, roads, or public places during the year ending the 31st day of December 1912. 16 p. f°. (House of Commons Paper 516.)

An annual return. The first was made in 1908. Price 2d. each. Can be secured from H. M. Stationery Office, London.

Jersey City, N. J. Rules for the regulation of street traffic, city of Jersey City, N. J., authorized by the board of police commissioners. January 1, 1913. 15 (1) p. 12°.

Distributed by courtesy of the City Betterment Interests, Jersey City, 46 Montgomery St.

New York City. Report of the special committee on speed regulations. April 15, 1913. (City Record, April 17, 1913, p. 3416–3419.)

An aldermanic committee appointed March 19, 1912, the Hon. Ralph Folks, chairman. The committee had previously reported on January 21, 1913 (City Record, January 23, p. 545–547). The present report submits an ordinance to take effect on June 1, 1913, and has been voted on in the affirmative. The existing local ordinance (sec. 354 municipal code) and the state motor vehicle law, popularly known as the Callan law (ch. 374, laws 1910), had heretofore regulated the speed of vehicular traffic in the streets of New York. The conflict in the provisions of these two enactments are pointed out in the report of the aldermanic committee.

Newarker (The). February, 1913, vol. 2, no. 4, p. 253–271 illus. 8°.

Devoted to the transportation problem in Newark, with a full statement of a proposed solution of the problem, prepared by Mr. John L. O'Toole of the publicity department of the public service. Sold at ten cents the copy. Published monthly by the Free Public Library of New Jersey.

Sohier, William D. The traffic census as a preliminary to road improvement. (Engineering and Contracting, Chicago, January 22, 1913, p. 94–97.)

Abstract of a paper read before the American Good Roads Congress.

Vocational Work

Alden, George I. A plan for the better education of boys and girls who leave the grammar school to seek employment in the unskilled industries. 1913. 10 p. obl. 8°.

Read before the Worcester Public Education Association, January 13, 1913.

Busser, Ralph C. The German system of industrial schooling. 63 p. February, 1913.

From a special consular report. A survey of the organization, scope, and aims of German vocational education. Through its system of general and special trade schools closely adapted to local needs and often under direction of the manufacturers or the guild, Germany is increasing the efficiency of its industrial organization to a degree not approached in any other country. Public Education Association, Study number 40.

Vocation Bureau of Boston. Record of the Bureau. 1913. 28 p. 8°.

Address: 6 Beacon Str., Boston, Mass.

Water Supply

Burlington, Vt. Water ordinance, city of Burlington, Vt. 1913. 15 p. 12°.

Cooley, Lyman E. The diversion of the waters of the Great Lakes by way of the Sanitary and Ship Canal of Chicago; a brief of the facts and issues. 1913. viii, 216 p., maps, diagrams. 8°.

Dayton, O. Bureau of municipal research. A plan to place the water works upon a self-sustaining basis. 1913. 29 p. 8°.

Civic Club of Berkeley, Calif. Berkeley Civic Bulletin, v. 1, no. 12, May 15, 1913.

See above under heading "General."

Discussion of Depreciation and a comparison of rates and bookkeeping methods of municipally and privately owned water works. (Proceedings American Water Works Association, 1912, v. 32, p. 325–349.)

GREAT BRITAIN. Local Government Board. Metropolitan water supply. 1913. 32 p. 8°.

Extract from the Annual Report of the local government board for 1911–1912.

FINAL (THE) COMPLETION AND OPERATION OF THE LOS ANGELES AQUEDUCT. (Canadian Engineer, January 9, 1913, p. 134–138, illus.)

NEW YORK CITY. Department of water supply, gas and electricity. Bulletin 1–4. 8°.

No. 1. Economy and efficiency in the department of water supply, gas and electricity. January, 1913. 16 p.

No. 2. Standard specifications, uniform procedure and forms relating to coal. February, 1913. 43 p.

No. 3. Functional classification of expenditures. March, 1913. 38 p.

No. 4. Report on the work done for the prevention of water waste. Cost of the same and results accomplished thereby. 29 p., 3 plates. 8°.

—— Board of water supply. Catskill water supply. A general description. January, 1913. 32 p., illus. 8°.

OKLAHOMA CITY. Report to the mayor and board of commissioners of Oklahoma City on an improved water supply for the city. February 15, 1913. 232 p., maps, diagrams. 8°.

The board of engineers which made the report was composed of Hiram Phillips, of St. Louis, John W. Alvord of Chicago and J. W. Billingsley of Houston.

TORONTO, Ont. Report upon the existing water works system and upon an additional water supply. 1912. 153 p., 27 plans. 8°.

The report of a board of experts consisting of Isham Randolph of Chicago, T. Aird Murray, J. G. Sing and Willis Chipman of Toronto.

UNITED STATES. Engineer department. Hetchy-Hetchy Valley. Report of advisory board of army engineers to the secretary of the interior on investigations relative to sources of water supply for San Francisco and bay communities. February 19, 1913. 146 p., illus., folding map, diagrams. 8°.

In this connection see above under the heading "General" the title Civic Club of Berkeley. Berkeley Civic Bulletin, no. 12.

VARONA, I. M. DE. Organization of the Bureau of water supply, New York City. (Proceedings 32d annual convention of the American Water Works Association, 1912, p. 61–74.)

COUNCIL MEETING

Council Meeting of the National Municipal League.—The April meeting of the council of the National Municipal League was held in the New York City Club, April 25, 1913, at 4 p.m., with Vice-President Camillus G. Kidder in the chair, the president, Mr. Foulke, being abroad on account of his health. The report of the referendum vote taken among the members of the council and advisory committee showing a decided preference in favor of *Toronto*, that city was unanimously selected as the place of the next annual meeting and the dates fixed for *November 12 to 15, 1913*. The executive committee was made the committee on arrangements.

The secretary reported 2531 members on the rolls as of March 31, the close of the fiscal year. The treasurer presented the following report for the year ending March 31, 1913.

ASSETS

Cash	$1,015.36	
Dues uncollected	650.47	
Inventory account	3,214.44	
Sundry debtors account	97.67	
Office furniture	173.50	
		$5,151.44

LIABILITIES

National Municipal League Account	$3,076.26	
Liquor committee fund	191.69	
W. H. Baldwin prize fund	110.00	
High school prize fund	95.00	
George Burnham, Jr	250.00	
Cincinnati prize fund	497.00	
Unpaid voucher account	931.49	
		$5,151.44

INCOME AND OUTGO ACCOUNT

March 31, 1913

Salaries and Clerical Work	$7,287.21
Postage	1,949.69
Printing and stationery	1,551.13
News clippings	225.41
Traveling expense	510.40
General expense	891.72
National Municipal Review	4,801.00
Office rent	750.00
Gain for year	990.36
	$18,956.92
Membership dues	$12,715.00
Sales Proceedings	233.41
Appleton books	255.48
Interest and discount	24.11
Life membership dues	100.00
Contributions	3,091.42
National Municipal Review Fund	2,227.50
Review pub. fund	60.00
Publishing fund	250.00
	$18,956.92

In response to the request of the editor of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, the policy of the council with regard to the publication was considered at length, at the conclusion of which a motion was introduced wherein the executive and publication committees were authorized to publish the REVIEW bi-monthly if that were deemed feasible.

On motion of A. Leo Weil, Esq., of Pittsburgh the following committee to nominate officers and members of the council for the 1913–14 was elected: Camillus G. Kidder, Orange, N. J., chairman; Robert S. Binkerd, New York; Charles J. Bonaparte, Baltimore; Lawson Purdy, New York; Charles C. Burlingham, New York.

The secretary was requested to communicate with members of the council and other prominent members of the League to the end that local prizes similar to the Cincinnati prize might be started in order to stimulate interest in municipal questions and in the work of the National Municipal League.

Mr. Kidder reported the formal organization of the American section of the International Committee for the Consideration of the Liquor Problem, and the acceptance by the Hon. William H. Taft of the honorary chairmanship of that committee.

The following delegates were chosen to the Fourth International Congress on School Hygiene: Isaac Adler, Hon. James G. Cutler, Joseph T. Alling, Rochester; Charles W. Andrews, Virgil H. Clymer, A. C. Chase, Syracuse; Hon. Merwin K. Hart, Rt. Rev. Charles T. Olmsted, D.D., Thomas R. Proctor, Utica; Munson Havens, Mayo Fesler, Warren S. Hayden, Cleveland.

The secretary reported that the executive committee had appointed Mr. M. N. Baker as the League's representative on the committee headed by the Hon. George McAneny to provide for the visit of the British Cities and Town Planning Exposition to this country.

Reports from committees then being in order, Mr. Kidder reported from the committee on the liquor problem, Mr. Childs from the committee on state municipal leagues, Mr. Cohen from the committee on electoral reform, Mr. Burnham from the committee on city budgets and accounting, Mr. Woodruff from the joint committee on the selection and retention of experts in municipal government, stating that the committee had performed the work assigned to it and that it should be discharged after the joint report was published, which would be very shortly.

Written reports in the shape of outlines of work in hand were presented from the committees on franchises: Delos F. Wilcox, chairman; municipal reference libraries and archives, H. E. Flack, chairman; sources of revenue, E. L. Heydecker; municipal courts, Harry Olson; civic education, A. W. Dunn, and civic secretaries, Elliot H. Goodwin.

Concerning Mr. Dunn's report which was presented by Mr. Weil, the executive committee was authorized to make the appropriation asked for by Mr. Dunn.

Mr. Woodruff reported at length from the committee on municipal program, reciting the fact that Professor Goodnow was going to China, Mr. Guthrie on a foreign mission, and that Dr. Rowe was already in Panama, and that Mr. Deming has been compelled to resign on account of the pressure of work incident to his recent ill health. The following names were suggested for the vacancies: Laurence A. Tanzer, Robert Treat Paine, Delos F. Wilcox, J. W. S. Peters, A. Leo Weil.

BOOK REVIEWS

Old Towns and New Needs: Also the Town Extension Plan. By Paul Waterhouse and Raymond Unwin. The Manchester University Press, 1912. New York: Longmans, Green and Company; 36 cents.

This little volume embraces the two Warburton lectures delivered at the University of Manchester in 1912 by acknowledged experts in city planning. The first is a sort of analysis of the philosophy of the subject—an inquiry whether there can be anything like a definite and scientific method in this new field of municipal endeavor. The conclusion seems to be negative: large and generous plans for old and well established towns are of little value, because the perpetual flux in town development defeats the best laid schemes. The perfect plan of one generation—witness Sir Christopher Wren's project for rebuilding London—may be rendered obsolete or even a positive hindrance by the unforeseen developments of the next. The smaller urban units which are absorbed into growing metropolitan areas are usually changed so radically by their new associations that the original plotting is ill-suited to the new needs; and so on. But Mr. Waterhouse does not preach the gospel of despair, in spite of this cold water thrown upon millennial aspirations. On the contrary he says many pertinent, helpful, and eminently practical things about meeting the urgent difficulties of congested traffic; and at every turn he puts up timely warnings for those who would rush in with new diagrams on white paper before analyzing their problems properly.

Mr. Unwin looks upon a larger horizon, and considers such radical matters as land taxation and German ways of doing things. He is more discursive than Mr. Waterhouse and prefers to touch many points rather than to prove a general thesis. He criticises English methods of raising local revenues from rates, speaks of planning in Düsseldorf, Cologne, and Chicago, describes Mr. Howard's garden city idea, shows how many great things have been wrought to make cities more convenient and inviting, explains what can be done under the recent English town planning act, and by much ingenious figuring fain would demonstrate that landlords will be just as prosperous and happy under the new law as they were before. This is really the great problem before English-speaking town planners: how to make the city beautiful and leave the princely revenues of ground landlords undisturbed. They are in the position of those estimable gentlemen who labored to convince Charles I that the conduct of the Long Parliament (until 1649 of course) was compatible with his enjoyment of full royal prerogatives.

Charles A. Beard.

New Milford, Conn.

The Law and Practice of Town Planning. Edited by Randolph A. Glen, M.A., LL.B., and Arthur D. Dean, Solicitor of the Supreme Court. London: Butterworth and Company, pp. xxxii, 283.

This is an English book for English readers. The result of much painstaking research and compilation, it is one of those cheaply issued volumes which are making easily available to English workers a mass of valuable data on municipal development.

Because it does contain this data, it has, however, considerable interest for Americans. It contains parts ii and iv and the schedules of the housing and town planning act of 1909, annotated; it includes circulars, memoranda and orders of the local government board and other boards relating to town planning; it contains model clauses for town planning schemes; outlines for various plans; and the housing and town planning powers obtained by the London county council in their new general powers act. In short, it is an attempt, as the preface declares, "to place before local authorities preparing or considering whether or not to prepare or adopt town planning schemes, and owners and occupiers of land for which a town planning scheme is in course of preparation or is likely to be prepared, all the legal and other useful information now available." All this material is brought as much up to date as January 21, 1913. Furthermore, it is made readily available by most complete indices and cross indices. These include tables of statutes in chronological order and of cases in alphabetical order.

A chapter on town planning abroad gives data for New Zealand, Transvaal, Orange River Colony, Italy, Sweden, Prussia and Germany, but says nothing about the United States. This suggests how little the book is intended for American readers. Nevertheless, American students of municipal progress are likely to find it of value for reference in their libraries.

Charles Mulford Robinson.
Rochester, N. Y.

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Street Pavements and Paving Materials. A manual of city pavements: the methods and materials of their construction. For the use of students, engineers and city officials. By Geo. W. Tillson, C.E. New York: John Wiley and Sons. $4.00

As its subtitle states this book is for a limited reading public, not because it is technical but because the portion of the public interested in such a subject is restricted. The book is of great value, not only to the persons indicated above, but also to secretaries of chambers of commerce, boards of trade, good government leagues, and organizations that have as their object the investigation of municipal affairs. The student of government or of city planning will find matters of interest treated in a readable and non-technical manner. As the editor states, "the main idea of the work has been to have it practical, so that an engineer unacquainted with the subject could obtain sufficient information to prepare specifications for, and intelligently supervise the construction of, pavements." He attains his object.

The book contains an outline of the earliest roads; a chemical analysis ofthe various kinds of stone; a consideration of the chief materials for road building from a geographical and chemical standpoint, namely, asphalt, brick, cement, cement mortar and concrete. These chapters deal with the various sources of these materials, their composition, their relative merits, the best methods of mixing and the many considerations of a scientific nature affecting them and their use. These chapters are valuable to an engineer in aiding him to understand the causes and effects of weather, chemical elements, different methods of mixing.

The author follows with a chapter on the theory of pavements of value not only to the technical person but to any student of paving.

Then follow chapters of a very practical nature devoted to a minute consideration of each type of paving, stone, asphalt, brick, wood, broken stone and concrete. These chapters trace the first examples of each type, give a careful description of the best varieties in use with specifications; costs worked out in such a way that any engineer with a few changes in figures to meet local conditions could work out a set of comparative costs; relative traction merits; and many practical hints as to the best way of making and laying the pavements.

One chapter then is devoted to each of the following subjects; plans and specifications; the construction of street car tracks in paved streets; width of streets and roadways; asphalt plants; and the protection of pavements.

Data is obtainable on any of the many subjects treated which cannot help being valuable to those studying street construction. The book is evidently written with the intention of giving all the facts in the author's possession without bias or prejudice. If, in estimating the relative value to be placed upon the various elements entering into a pavement, he has given figures which to the layman may seem only personal opinion, the reader can place considerable confidence in the practical experience of the author.

The book is an exhaustive survey of 600 pages into one of the most neglected subjects in municipal government. It is too bad that the typographical work is not equal to the subject matter.

REGINALD MOTT HULL.

Cambridge, Mass.

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FIRE PREVENTION. By Peter J. Mc Keon. New York: The Chief Publishing Company, 1912.[1]

This volume of 250 pages is described in its sub-title as " a treatise and textbook on making life and property safe against fire" and is designed to meet the needs of "inspectors, fire marshals, business men, building managers, shop foremen, superintendents of institutions, janitors, engineers, matrons, and housekeepers." This characterization, it will be observed, includes about the entire range of professional and lay interest in a subject that is commanding wide and growing attention on account of its direct bearing upon a program of scientific management and conservation of national resources.

Facts, almost staggering in their proportions, have recently been placed before the citizens and taxpayers of the country by a group of investigators and engineers regarding the economic and social waste occasioned by preventable fire. It has been shown that the value of property annually destroyed by fire in this country reaches the enormous total of $250,000,000. This is about one-fourth of the annual value of the new buildings constructed annually. To this amount must be added $150,000,000 for the expense of protective measures. Here is an average annual charge of over $3 per capita of population, as against a corresponding charge of about 30 cents per capita in western Europe. In addition to this stupendous property loss, there is the shameful annual loss of more than 1500 lives, and 5000 serious accidents which are the direct results of fires.

While this immense property loss is in large part covered by insurance, it is obviously a dead loss to the country at large and not a transfer or redistribution of wealth, such as takes place in ordinary commercial or industrial exchange. Fire insurance is simply a device for distributing among a large number of individuals this economic dead loss which does not work to the advantage of any one. About one-half of the premium collected by insurance companies goes to pay the fire losses on insured property; the other half of the premium goes into the expenses and profits of the insurance business.

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[1] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. ii., p. 368.

The actual fire waste of the country is therefore far beyond the amount paid in the form of insurance losses.

The reasons for an American per capita fire waste ten times that of western Europe are not difficult to find. Better building codes and more strict enforcement of the law; the more general use of brick, stone, and cement in construction, partly on account of the scarcity and high cost of wood; the lower height and smaller floor space of buildings; and the silent influence of long established habits of caution, are some of the advantages which account for the lower unit cost of fire waste in Europe. The engineering and actuarial data regarding fire waste, fire prevention, and fire protection in this country until recently have been almost entirely in the hands of the fire insurance interests. Obviously, as the premiums paid for insurance are so fixed as to cover the entire loss through fires as well as the expense and profits of the business, it has not been to the business interest of fire insurance men to promote a broad program for reducing fire waste.

The present volume gathers up and puts into available form much of the data that has recently been developed by independent agencies for the study and prevention of fire waste. In spite of certain regrettable defects in typography and style, the material here collected has very definite value to the student of fire prevention. In a series of about sixty chapters on important aspects of building construction, protection and occupancy, the writer summarizes, with considerable force and with frequent illustration and diagram, the principles and practices underlying modern fire prevention.

Such factors of building construction as fire walls, fire doors, shafts and belt holes, fire shutters, fire escapes and exits are treated in a simple, direct, and helpful way.

In the treatment of equipment for the proper protection of buildings, emphasis is placed upon the automatic sprinkler, the automatic alarm, stand pipes, chemical extinguishers, fire pails, and systematic inspection.

The dangers of bad housekeeping and occupancy occasioned by refuse-filled cellars, halls, and adjacent yards, unsafe gas jets and engines, uncovered lights and defective flues; the effectiveness of many simple precautions, such as fire drills, periodic cleaning-up and systematic inspection, receive proper attention in several brief chapters.

It is regrettable that page references were not inserted in the table of contents to enable the reader to refer quickly to the several chapters. This defect is partly overcome by the references contained in the index; but the subject matter of fire prevention is so largely unfamiliar to most readers that the chapter headings rather than the specific topics contained in the index must be the main guides. The very large amount of recent, practical data makes the book an invaluable one to any beginner in the science of fire prevention and will doubtless prove of much interest and value to more advanced students when supplemented by such technical engineering data as may be obtained from the current publications of the National Fire Protective Association of Boston and the Underwriters Laboratories of Chicago.

Jesse D. Burks.

Philadelphia.

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Medical Inspection of Schools. By Luther Halsey Gulick, and Leonard P. Ayres. Revised and reprinted. New York Survey Associates, 1913, pp. xx, 224; $1.50.

A careful and exhaustive statement of the purpose of medical inspection, its cost, its results, its methods, and some of the problems of its administration. The authors of the book have made it a practical manual for the guidance of school authorities and teachers in establishing such inspection by detailed accounts of methods used in many cities and numerous forms of reports and records. A chapter is devoted to the history and present status of the work in this country. During the past few years medical inspection has been made a part of the school activities in nearly half of the cities of the United States. Twenty states now provide for it by statute; 443 of the cities of this country have systems of medical inspection. Most of these employ school physicians and many of them school nurses.

New laws compelling school attendance of all children have brought into the schools many children who are unable to keep up with others of the same age. Medical inspection has shown that this backwardness is intimately connected with physical defects, and that the large sums spent annually on carrying these children over the work of a year for the second time could be made much less by simple measures for correcting these defects.

The work takes the form of school inspections with whose results the parents are made acquainted. In some cities the school physician invites consultation. In some free hospital treatment and clinics are available. The employment of school nurses has been undertaken in many cities and their work is coming to be recognized as one of the most important factors in linking school and home, especially in those sections of the large cities that have a foreign population. Through school nurses the effectiveness of inspection is increased many times.

Throughout the book the writers have confined themselves to statements of actual experience and have not made it a record of individual views. Clear statement and well selected material make the volume exceedingly valuable.

EDWIN RAY GUTHRIE.
Central High School, Philadelphia.

⁂

STATUTE LAW MAKING IN THE UNITED STATES. By Chester Lloyd Jones. Boston: The Boston Book Company. 327 pp.

Only in recent years has any attention been given to the form of statutes in the United States, and this work of Professor Jones should prove a handy aid to the legislator. The second or principal part is devoted to the drafting of bills, the matter in which practical advice is most needed. The first part considers constitutional limitations, and justly criticises their increasing bulk in the newer constitutions of the western states; the third part, "Legislative Expedients," considers methods of improving the form of bills and the legislative sanction to laws. Professor Jones contemplates the increase of statute making in years to come, an opinion which, except as to merely administrative law, some students may not be inclined to agree with, especially in view of the increasing frequency of the popular referendum: "The importance of statute law in the life of every modern nation will continue to increase. A dynamic civilization necessitates easy and rapid adjustment of law to changing economic conditions. Law evolved by custom alone cannot keep up with the developments of our modern life, and the state must resort to new rules made to fit new conditions. In all countries law—even statute law—must as as a rule follow, not lead, economic and social advance" (p. 306). Accepting this to be the fact, such work as that of the present author will be the more needed.

On page 7 we notice many errors in the dates given for the original constitutions of the states, our author having relied upon Thorpe's *American Charters, Constitutions and Organic Laws*, instead of seeking the original sources. Thus, if we are correctly informed, Delaware, Maryland, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, South Carolina and Virginia adopted constitutions in 1776; Georgia and New York in 1777; it is true that the constitution of South Carolina was held to be but an ordinary statute. Some others of these were brief, and some were never submitted to the people. Nevertheless, for the sake of historical accuracy, correction should be made. On pages 10–11 is a most interesting tabulation of the date and period of legislative sessions, with the number of the state senates and houses of representatives, their term of service and pay; the author justly criticises the arbitrary limitation of the length of session. Law-making by initiative is criticised as not, as it were, "due process" of legislation; in that the persons affected by the law may have no due notice and hearing. The advocates of these changes will doubtless reply that this is far more true of bills in the legislatures. In the same chapter we find an excellent discussion of special and local legislation.

The important constitutional limitations on the form of statute making are those requiring unity of subject, the origin of revenue bills in the lower house, the restrictions against local or special laws; the enactment or revival of laws by reference (pt. ii, ch. 3).

Special chapters are given to the titles to bills; to the preamble; the enacting clause, and, longest of all, the subject matter; with an excellent chapter on the language of the statutes and one on repeals, the time of taking effect, on amendments and on resolutions. The recommendations on the subject of the form of bills would seem proper matter to be taken up by the state commissions on uniform law. Something might have been said on the advisability of numeration by chapter, not by date only, of annual laws; their arrangement—not to be alphabetical but topical or, at least, chronological; and the official publication of revisions. But as a whole we find the book an excellent pioneer in a hitherto neglected subject.

F. J. Stimson.

Harvard University.

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The Initiative and Referendum. A pamphlet published by the National Economic League, 6 Beacon Street, Boston, Massachusetts, 1912. 25 cents paper; 50 cents cloth, postage prepaid.

This pamphlet contains affirmative arguments submitted by Senator Robert L. Owen, William Allen White, Frederic C. Howe and Prof. Lewis J. Johnson; and negative arguments by Senator George Sutherland, Emmet O'Neal, Frederick P. Fish and Charles F. A. Currier, with a keen rebuttal by Professor Johnson for the affirmative and a rather unsatisfactory rebuttal for the negative by Prof. C. F. A. Currier.

The affirmative seems to favor the indirect initiative with a state pamphlet of the character issued in Oklahoma in which the legislature's position is submitted in carefully prepared arguments, the opposing argument being drawn up by a committee representing the petitioners. The affirmative feels that the initiative and the referendum improve the status of the voter, enlist new talent for public service, are a safeguard against mob rule, have significant educational value and have met with splendid success wherever used.

The argument against direct legislation points out particularly the technical character of acts often submitted under the initiative and the referendum, urging that the people cannot vote intelligently on such subjects as the candle power for the head light of a locomotive, county boundaries, salaries of district judges, three-fourths verdict in civil cases, etc.

Professor Johnson in his rebuttal points out that for the solution of such questions, the people have at hand the advice of experts to the same extent that the legislators have, and that such questions have been and must ever be submitted under constitutional amendments

Clyde L. King.

University of Pennsylvania.

⁂

The Foundations of Freedom. Middleton, England: John Bagot, Ltd. 1912. 4d.

This series of twenty-two essays on the taxation of land values is useful in several respects though the general tone of the whole is over-eulogistic and oratorical. The authors hail from the four quarters of the globe, four Americans being well represented both in space and ideas. Probably the most trenchant and impressive essay is the one contributed by Bolton Hall on charity. Several of our conservative notions anent philanthropy receive quite a jolt, even though we refuse to follow the writer to the ultimate acceptance of his own ideals. Mr. Fillebrown of Boston writes in his usual terse way on equal rights to land. Several others possess the real merit of logic made convincingly interesting. But as in much of their literature, the single taxers are here prone to wearisome prolixity and overfond of referring to *Progress and Poverty* as a veritable *Koran*—thereby creating doubt in some minds as to their individual originality or ability to do their own thinking. But to those who know only the "dangerous little" about the single tax doctrine, a dip into this little volume will do no harm—except to the eyes; the typography leaves a good deal to be desired. C. LINN SEILER.

Philadelphia.

*

A POLITICAL PRIMER FOR THE NEW VOTER. By Bessie Beatty. San Francisco: Whitaker and Ray-Wiggin Company, 1912, pp. 76.

The title of Miss Beatty's little book should give a fair guess at its purpose. But from the introduction it appears that it is intended as a textbook in elementary schools as well as a handbook for the new voter. It is, however, suited neither to school child nor new voter—least of all to the new voter who is foreign born. It is far from being simple enough for its proposed students and readers. Phrases like "the destruction of party autocracy" abound. "Reconstruction," "public service corporations," and the like are without definition or explanation. It is in many cases inaccurate, carelessly written and printed. The sketch of the history and policies of the Democratic and Republican parties is not sufficiently adequate to be informing for its declared purpose. And there is the handicap for wide use that nearly all the illustrative examples of the workings of our state governments are taken from California. The book is thus to a large extent a description of conditions existing in that state, often existing in that state alone.

But this primer still has distinct value, a value that is in part suggestive. There has long been need of an elemental book of civics, brightly and interestingly written, as is this, but also very carefully and very simply written, prepared with a clear knowledge of what our American boys and girls need to know, of what—and this should be a separate book—our foreign born new citizens and prospective citizens need to know of our political life and government and of their civic duties.

There is a further virtue in this primer. The spirit of the book is admirable, broadly patriotic with a very persuasive enthusiasm for every good cause, marking a wide difference from the dull and stereotyped books of civics that have too long been imposed on our young people. The chapters on socialism and the legal status of women are excellent. So, too, is the account of California's recent legislation, its progressive achievements and program.

JOHN FOSTER CARR.

New York.

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THE MUNICIPAL YEAR BOOK OF THE UNITED KINGDOM FOR 1913. Founder and Director, Robert Donald; Editor, Albert E. Cave. London: The Municipal Journal, Ltd. 15 shillings,

The present volume contains 1150 pages as compared with 1131 in the 1912 volume. It is divided into 28 sections and besides giving information concerning the local government board and municipal corporations in England, Wales, Scotland and Ireland, it contains full information about the London government and urban district councils. Then there are a number of sections devoted to specific topics like housing, markets, baths, free public libraries and public cemeteries. The section on town planning has been entirely rewritten and constitutes a short treatise on the practical execution of the provisions of the act of 1909. Two entirely new tables have been added to the section relating to local taxation. One of these gives an analysis of the county rates and assessable values in English counties, and the other gives the rates, valuations, etc., of Scottish burghs. The entire book has been very thoroughly revised during the year. The last section of the book contains a list of municipal societies with a statement of their objects and the names and addresses of the officers.

It is to be hoped that another year will see an adequate American municipal year book.

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THE BRITANNICA YEAR BOOK. New York: The Encyclopedia Britannica Company, 1913. $1.75.

THE AMERICAN YEAR BOOK. Edited by Francis G. Wickware. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1913. $3.50.

The first year book to be issued by the publishers of the *Encyclopedia Britannica* and intended to keep that important publication up to date, contains 1226 pages and is edited by Hugh Chisholm, the editor of the *Encyclopedia*. Naturally it gives more attention to international and national politics and developments than to local matters. It is to be hoped that future issues will be fuller in this latter respect. Under the heads of the various states and countries treated there are brief references to local elections and to some local developments, but it has no comprehensive and coördinated treatment of municipal problems and the consideration accorded municipal events under the state and national heads in some cases is fairly full, in others slight almost to the point of neglect. Prof. Edward M. Sait of Columbia University, one of the assistant editors of the department of Notes and Events of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, contributes a full and satisfactory review of political developments in this country during the years 1911–1912.

The third volume of *The American Year Book* was prepared under the direction of a supervisory board representing national learned societies. Included in these is the National Municipal League, the secretary of which contributes the department on municipal government. In addition to one whole section being devoted to this subject various phases like public services and public works are treated under other heads. A comprehensive index adds greatly to the value of the book. *The American Year Book*, as its name indicates, is mainly devoted to the consideration of American events and movements, although foreign ones are included where they have a bearing on world movements in which America takes its share or where they have an American meaning or application.

Both of these year books abound in useful tables and statistics and list of officials, and both also have excellent necrologies.

⁂

HAND BOOK OF MUNICIPAL ACCOUNTING. Prepared by the Metz Fund from Descriptive and Critical Data Collected and Constructive Recommendations made by the Bureau of Municipal Research, New York. New York: D. Appleton and Company. $2.00.

This volume is evidently a work prepared with care and based on much practical experience, but somewhat too abstract for the general, transitory class of municipal accounting officers. It is however a guide of a high order for such officials as have acquired some insight and experience in municipal affairs and who assume their tasks with a serious notion of duties and responsibilities. Two important points are clearly emphasized in the book, points that cannot be too often brought to one's attention.

1. That the condition of the cash account is no indication whatever of the state of affairs maintaining in the city or the standing of the city as a business institution. The books of most municipal corporations will show little more than an itemized account of cash receipts and payments. Contracts for very important public improvements are entered

into and when the last payment has been made to the contractor the transaction will entirely disappear from the general books and a valuable asset in which the taxpayer has invested large sums of money ceases to play any part in the city's live records. All resulting statements therefore to the public are inaccurate and misleading.

2. The absolute necessity of scientific reports for the guidance of administrative and executive officers, guidance without which their acts are necessarily uncertain, crude and wasteful.

These points are clearly stated and hints given for their practical application. The value however of some of the enclosed exhibits is doubtful owing to the different terms used in the various states to specify certain transactions. Again, concrete duties and methods of procedure entailed upon officials in different states are far from being the same, which at times makes it difficult to fully comprehend the value of any given exhibit. In order that a journal entry may be appreciated and correctly made the transaction itself in all of its concrete details must be thoroughly understood. Explanatory footnotes appended to the exhibits would therefore be a great help. The main value of this very excellent work lies in its bringing to notice fundamental truths for general guidance and methods for practical application. The old rules of thumb methods so common in municipal administration are rapidly drawing toward a close, and books of this kind are to be heartily welcomed for indicating the true lines which sooner or later we will all be compelled to follow.

Martin A. Gemunder.

Columbus, O.

BOOKS RECEIVED

The American Spirit. By Oscar S. Straus. New York: The Century Company. $2.00.

City Building. By S. H. Clay. Cincinnati: Clark Publishing Company.

The Civic Theatre, in Relation to the Redemption of Leisure. By Percy Mackaye. New York: Mitchell Kennerly.

Coöperation in New England, Urban and Rural. By James Ford, Ph.D. New York: Survey Associates, Inc. $1.50.

Essays in Taxation. By E. R. A. Seligman. New York: The Macmillan Company. $4.00.

Immigration. By Henry Pratt Fairchild. New York: The Macmillan Company. $1.75

London and Its Government. By Percy A. Harris. London: J. M. Dent and Sons, Ltd. 2/6.

Asphalt Construction for Pavements and Highways. By Clifford Richardson. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company. $2.00.

The Oregon System: The Story of Direct Legislation in Oregon. By Allen H. Eaton. Chicago: A. C. McClurg and Company. $1.00.

The Reduction of Domestic Flies. By Edward H. Ross. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company.

The Making of a Town. By Frank L. McVey. Chicago: A. C. McClurg and Company. $1.00.

Specifications for Street Roadway Pavements. By S. Whinery. New York: McCraw-Hill Book Company. $1.00.

The Supreme Court and Unconstitutional Legislation. By Blaine Free Moore, Ph.D. New York: Columbia University. Longmans, Green and Company, agents. $1.00.

The Wayback Club. A Text-book on Progressiveism in Wisconsin, with an Analysis of the Initiative, Referendum and Recall. Crandon, Wis.: Crandon Publishing Company.

Report of the Philadelphia Baby Saving Show, with the Proceedings of the Conference on Infant Hygiene, Philadelphia, May 18-26, 1912. Published by the Executive Committee, Child Hygiene Association, Real Estate Trust Building, Philadelphia. $1.00.

The Convention of the Royal Burghs of Scotland, 1913.

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CLINTON ROGERS WOODRUFF,
Editor.

Sworn to and subscribed before me this fifteenth day of Feburary, 1913.

Emma D. Chappell,
(Seal) Notary Public.

Commission expires January 18, 1917.

INDEX TO NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW

ALSO TITLE PAGE.

The editor has prepared a detailed index to Volume I of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW which will be sent on application to members of the National Municipal League and subscribers who desire it.

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SCIENTIFIC MANAGEMENT IN THE PUBLIC WORKS OF CITIES

BY GUY C. EMERSON[1]

Boston

THERE has been so much discussion during the past few years of the effect of the introduction into commercial and industrial enterprises of systems of scientific management, so-called, and the promises of increased efficiency under scientific management seems so alluring to many minds that it is not unnatural to find people inquiring whether scientific management may not be introduced successfully into the government of the cities.

It must be apparent, however, to any one possessed of a working familiarity with the combination of municipal governments that such conditions are so unlike those which exist in private industrial and commercial enterprises that even though it be assumed that scientific management will succeed in private enterprises it does not necessarily follow that it would succeed if applied to the public works of cities. It is true, however, that there is in general more need for the introduction of scientific management into the government of cities than there is for its introduction into the conduct of private enterprises, as no one disputes the fact that the government of cities is less efficient and more extravagant than the conduct of private enterprises.

Employers in private enterprises who have become convinced of the merits of scientific management are finding that their employees as a rule do not take kindly to the introduction of improved methods. Nevertheless, if the employer in a given case can convince his employees that scientific management is for the advantage both of the employer and employee, he has no difficulty in introducing and maintaining the principles of scientific management. The head of a city department, however, would find great difficulties, for not only must he convince himself and his employees that the system is of mutual advantage, but he must also convince the electorate that the system is a proper one for the city to adopt. It would be harder for the head of a municipal department to convince his employees that scientific management is a good thing than it would be for the head of a private establishment to convince his employees, for the head of a private industrial establishment could within a reasonable time eliminate all those who opposed the introduction of the system. This is precisely what the head of a municipal department would probably fail to do. The head of the private establishment could discharge a man summarily who objected to the introduction of labor-saving principles of management, but the head of a municipal department would find that he would have to discuss the case not only with the recalcitrant employee but also with the labor unions of which such employees were members, or with which they were affiliated, also with the friends and relatives of such employees with their political representatives, with the mayor of the city and finally with the public, which can vote the administration in or out, as it pleases.

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[1] Mr. Emerson is a consulting engineer for municipal work and is retained in that capacity at the present time by the Boston finance commission. He has been deputy superintendent of streets in charge of the sewer division in Boston, and later superintendent, also acting superintendent of supplies and acting commissioner of penal institutions. He has also been employed on the metropolitan sewerage commission, on the Boston transit commission, and the U. S. Reclamation Service. —EDITOR.

For a thorough understanding of the subject it is necessary to realize the peculiar conditions which create the working force of the American city. The members of such forces are almost entirely the creation of the political necessities of different municipal administrations and are organized primarily as a political organization, efficiency of work being a secondary consideration. The working force of the American city is a compact body of voters that can be depended on at election time to favor the candidates who promise the most benefits to their organization in the form of increased wages, easy jobs and shorter working hours. This body also controls the votes of an even larger number of relatives, friends and dependents. As an example, Boston has a working force of perhaps 10,000 permanent employees, whose tenure of office does not change with the succeeding administrations. The day labor force constitutes by far the greater proportion of this body. These employees with their relatives, friends, and other interested persons constitute a solid political force of probably 25,000 voters.

In a city like Boston, with an ordinary voting strength of from 60,000 to 80,000 votes, on election day it is easy to perceive the preponderating influence of the city laborer. This force is without doubt the most powerful factor in the political organization of Boston, or of Massachusetts.

Scientific management reduced to the simplest and most easily understandable form is simply the introduction of business methods. Various writers have attempted to reduce such methods to a certain number of elementary principles, the number depending on the idea of the individual treating the subject. No author so far as I am aware has created any new idea in industrial management, but has simply formulated in such form as may be understood by the average employer those principles, the application of which has resulted in the greatest efficiency in all features of industrial activity. It is the purpose of the present article to point out in some detail the difficulties in introducing business methods into the conduct of municipal work.

In attempting to consider the subject one is confronted at the outset with a realization that adequate discussion of the details of the subject is beyond the limits of the space that can be allowed. The complex organization of the modern municipal corporation, comprising as it does in some degree nearly every form of industrial activity, renders any complete discussion of the subject out of the question in the limits of a magazine article. The following discussion will, therefore, be confined to a discussion of such branches of municipal enterprises as are subject to the principles of scientific management as laid down for industrial enterprises, that is, to such municipal enterprises as are fairly comparable with the operations of private employers doing similar work.

Such activities are best illustrated by those branches of municipal service that have to do with the safety and convenience of the community, as exemplified in the construction and maintenance of sewerage systems, water works, paving, bridges, street cleaning, and the collection and disposal of city refuse.

Work of the nature outlined is always subject to contract methods, and when so done is removed from the consideration of this article and placed under conditions which govern private enterprises. This discussion will be confined to the conduct of such branches of municipal activity as are done directly by employees of the city departments.

In investigating the matter it will be found that various methods of increasing the production of the human machine, such as varying scales of wages, piece work, the employment of a pace-maker, bonuses for extreme individual efficiency or for increased production, are not applicable to municipal work, for reasons altogether beyond the control of the director of such enterprises. It is plain even to the casual observer that no radical changes in industrial management are undertaken without incentive, and the greatest incentive for the introduction of scientific management is the direct financial return from increased efficiency. It is also clear that this incentive does not ordinarily exist in municipal enterprises, the municipal water department being the notable exception. There is only one side to the municipal ledger and such standards of municipal efficiency as exist are unsatisfactory as they vary in different cities and even in the same city. As a matter of fact, the lack of any financial measure is the greatest handicap to the introduction of improved methods.

Scientific management assumes at the outset a perfect knowledge of the duties to be performed by the supervising official, and this is a condition that is very seldom realized in municipal enterprises. The municipal superintendent is in the greater majority of cases merely a figurehead, the actual work of supervision being performed by subordinates. The installation of a suitable superintendent for municipal activities is the exception, and whenever such a person is secured his tenure of office is usually brief, owing to political conditions. Moreover, in those cases where untrained men of exceptional natural ability are secured under political condition, their tenure of office is usually so brief as to prevent the absorption of sufficient knowledge of their duties to direct the enterprises over which such supervision exists, and the municipality is placed in the position of paying for the partial education of the official, only to lose his services at such time as he begins to become of value.

Each new administration, under whatever conditions it assumes authority for the municipal management, is handicapped by pre-election promises, involving the disposal of the more lucrative and more responsible offices of the municipality as a reward for the political services of either of the appointee to office or of his influential and powerful friends. Even in so-called "reform" administrations such obligations are not entirely unknown.

To secure efficiency, it is necessary that the department head has not only honesty, but previous training, natural ability, tact and a knowledge of political conditions. Competent persons willing to accept a municipal position are exceedingly hard to find. Moreover, there are not in the ordinary municipality sufficient positions, if such an official is found, to satisfy all the promises that have been made by the political managers of the successful administration and the official assuming office with the best intentions finds that he is expected by his superior officer, the mayor, to make it his first duty successfully to cultivate two jobs where only one grew originally. The pressure exerted from such sources results in the appointment of unnecessary employees in the higher paid grades, and in an overhead cost for municipal work, which alone is sufficient to prohibit any successful competition with the cost of work done under private control.

It is an unfortunate fact that municipal finances are matters almost without interest to the average citizen, who views the padding of the municipal payroll without interest, except as he may be influenced by envy for the fortunate recipients of the municipal bounty.

While, without doubt, the greatest handicap to the introduction of scientific methods in municipal work is lack of a financial stimulus, there is a second consideration nearly as important, to wit, the lack of an adequate basis of comparison by which the work of the officials of succeeding administrations may be judged, or by which the work of the same official in different years of his administration may be compared.

The greatest, perhaps the only incentive to efficient municipal work is public opinion and unfortunately, except in cases of extreme conditions, public opinion, as regards the work of the city official, is very largely an artificial opinion, created by interested persons. It is dependent, in a very great degree, upon the friendship or enmity of the city hall reporter. The average citizen knows very little of conditions beyond those existing on his small street or in his neighborhood, but a particular citizen with influence in the community and sufficient talent for gaining the attention of his fellow-citizens can with little difficulty spread impressions, either favorable or unfavorable, to the work of city officials, entirely at variance with the facts, and place the official, however efficient he may be, in a false position with no means of disproving accusations which have been made.

From the general conditions already outlined, let us proceed to a consideration of the various artificial limitations controlling the actual work of city employees.

In the first place, employees of municipal departments cannot be induced to perform extra amounts of work beyond the amount to which they have been accustomed except upon pain of suspension or discharge. The matter of public sentiment prevents a municipal superintendent from securing such efficiency as obtained in private employment through disciplinary measures. The municipal employee, under the protection of civil service rules, is enabled to place the burden of proof for inefficiency upon the supervising official. Direct evidence to substantiate such charges is exceedingly difficult to obtain and when sufficient evidence is obtained to prove clearly inefficiency, the friends of the offender immediately descend upon the supervising official with promise of future good behavior and increased efficiency, and, if such promises do not have the effect of immediate reinstatement, tactics are changed so that the official head of the administration is threatened with the wrath of such persons at the next election. These tactics sooner or later usually obtain the reinstatement of the inefficient employee under such particularly aggravated conditions that he feels, properly perhaps, that he has secured a victory over his superior officer and that consequently he is entitled to render as little for the future service as he may see fit.

Again, the mawkish sentimentality of the general public refuses to sanction the efforts of the city official in securing a more efficient force through the discharge of its more inefficient members, such as have been incapacitated through disease, age, mental infirmities, or similar causes. Not only is the supervising official handicapped by each sentiment, but there seems to be a general sentiment in the community that municipal employment is the proper place for the disposal of the more inefficient members of society, especially for such inefficient members as are incapable of supporting themselves in private employment. The municipal force is considered an asylum wherein a living may be secured by such persons without the stigma of charity being attached to the compensation received. The result is that the city secures a working force of more than an average degree of inefficiency and the force, such as it is, in practice, has its natural speed reduced to the limit of its most inefficient member.

The bonus system is not applicable to the municipal employee, nor is the piece-work system applicable, for the influence of the labor unions removes these incentives to extra effort from the list of possibilities. Cities find it practically impossible to pay varying rates of wages to men engaged in similar employment. Political pressure would immediately be asserted in behalf of the employees who were paid the lower rate, and the head of the department would immediately be compelled to establish a flat rate for all persons similarly employed, as he could not withstand the constant pressure which would be put upon him. Likewise, the piece-work system would fail because of the influence of the labor unions who exercise such a powerful influence in municipal politics that they could prevent the introduction of that system. Nor would the labor union take more kindly to the introduction of a system of differential rates of wages, based upon actual records of work performed by the various employees, as they regard this system as a species of "slave-driving" under which the weaker members would be forced to the wall in competition with the stronger members of society. The truth is that labor unions generally act upon the assumption that it is their function to create and maintain as many jobs as possible, believing that this attitude is necessary in order to counteract the influence of the employer, who, they maintain, is constantly striving to reduce the number of jobs to a minimum.

It is apparent, therefore, that the principles of the labor union and the principles of scientific management are diametrically opposed, the latter seeking to get the maximum efficiency for a minimum cost, while the labor unions seek to get the maximum of compensation for a minimum of effort. Generally speaking, this is also the principle upon which municipal employees proceed, and, what is worse, the public seems indisposed to take issue against this view. The citizen who sees city laborers idling in the public streets and who would not tolerate idleness in the employees of his own business generally makes no effort to increase the efficiency of municipal labor. He seems to regard existing municipal conditions as practically impossible of improvement. Unfortunately, too, whenever the public has been aroused by a disclosure of the inefficiency of municipal labor and a reform administration has been elected, the efforts of the reform administration with respect to labor have resulted in defeat at the succeeding election, the defeat being due to the influence of the employees and their friends, actively assisted by the labor unions. Under such circumstances both the ordinary citizen interested in municipal efficiency and the head of a municipal department find it difficult to give themselves up to any constant effort to increase the output of municipal labor.

The law itself opposes obstacles to the introduction of scientific management into the business of municipalities. Civil service laws have no doubt improved the administration of cities, but they have not been without their defects. They were established for a two-fold purpose. First, to prove that city employees should have some qualifications for their work, and second, to protect such employees in office and to prevent their discharge for political reasons, but more attention seems to have been paid to protecting city employees in office than to the securing of efficiency. A private employer can immediately discharge an employee who is found loafing, but experience has shown that it is almost impossible to procure the discharge of a public employee protected by civil service rules, except for an offense involving moral turpitude.

However attractive the civil service theory may appear, it is a fact that civil service regulations are not designed to secure the maximum efficiency, although they may act to prevent the minimum of efficiency. Undoubtedly the system, as at present enforced, is one of the greatest protection for the taxpayer, as well as for the municipal employee, that so far has been introduced into municipal service. On the other hand, the system is defective as it does not determine the personal characteristics of the civil service employee, as regards honesty, loyalty to his superior, or disposition to work.

An illustration of such defects in the civil service system recently came to the writer's attention in his duties as an assistant examiner. One examination paper coming under his notice was particularly well prepared, the composition was almost perfect, the handwriting was of copperplate type, the mathematics received the maximum mark, and the other subjects indicated almost the same degree of efficiency. The personal experience paper showed the applicant to be of exemplary habits. The suspicion of the examiner was aroused to find why such a high grade man was an applicant for such a comparatively unimportant position. In reading over the experience sheet he recognized the applicant as a former subordinate, whose mental condition absolutely prevented him from being of any use in the position which he sought, or any other; but it did not prevent his passing an almost perfect examination. This example is of course an extreme case, but the principle applies in a lesser degree to a great number of employees selected under the system. Even though the present system be the best possible for modern political conditions, it does not secure such a class of employees as may be easily obtained by industrial corporations working under private control.

Again, the law interferes by limiting the hours of labor of the employee and in some cases by establishing a minimum rate of compensation at a higher rate than that paid by the private employer for similar service. The effect of such restrictions is in some cases at least responsible for a curtailment of output, as compared with private work, of more than 40 per cent, assuming the same degree of efficiency for the municipal employee as for the man in private employ during working hours.

A consideration of such handicaps as are placed upon municipal work by statute or ordinance, together with the inefficiency of city labor from other causes, will show a degree of inefficiency of from 60 to 80 per cent as compared with labor forces in private employ. For the greater part of such inefficiency the municipal superintendent is in no way responsible.

In some of our cities, and to a greater extent in foreign cities, the system of old age or service pensions has been introduced as an incentive to efficiency. The excuse for pensions for municipal employees is the incentive which they offer to secure the continued employment of especially efficient men, and that at the end of his period of efficiency he will be suitably taken care of. It is anticipated that with such a prospect the municipal employee will realize the danger of being deprived of the opportunity for support without work in his old age and therefore prove a particularly efficient employee. As a matter of fact, so far as observations have extended, the system works exactly in the opposite manner. No increase of efficiency has been observed on account of a consideration of future benefits. The fact is that the municipal employee who violates rules or regulations, or who has proved to be particularly inefficient, is made an object of sympathy and regarded as in a great degree exempt from discipline.

The introduction of such municipal pensions has in practice decreased the efficiency, for they are based on specified periods of service, and once the period has begun to run it is found difficult to remove an employee who has in a certain sense an equitable interest in the pension which he will receive at the end of the period, if he is not removed. Take the case of a man who would be eligible to a pension after fifteen years of municipal service, either good or bad, and has committed an offense after he has served ten years, of the period, which would justify his removal from the service. His friends immediately raise the cry that he would be entitled to a pension after five years more of service and that it would be a shame to remove him and thus deprive him and his dependents of the benefits of his ten years of good service. Such appeals are very hard for the responsible officer to resist, and reinstatements are the rule in such cases. In extreme cases, where reinstatement is refused, the offender simply has to wait for the succeeding administration to restore him to his privileges.

The veterans' preference laws also impose a formidable barrier to efficient work in municipalities. These aged men are employed in the first instance, not because of their qualifications for office, but because of the service rendered to their country at the time of its peril. They are not expected to do a full day's work, and their presence under these circumstances has a demoralizing influence upon the entire force. Moreover, it is now practically impossible, in some states, to remove a veteran from office even when he has been guilty of grave offenses. In Massachusetts municipalities, for example, a veteran cannot be removed except after a public hearing by the city council and a vote of dismissal by the council. No case has yet come to my knowledge in which a veteran has been removed since the law was adopted.

In the matter of the purchase of supplies the municipality is handicapped as compared with the private individual or corporation. Although payment is absolutely certain, it is a fact that the city usually pays a higher price than the private buyer, and in addition very frequently receives an inferior article. It is a recognized fact that it is the right of every citizen of a municipality to obtain such share of the municipal patronage as can properly be obtained, and that the best method to obtain fair conditions is by competitive bidding for supplies and municipal equipment. While the method of competitive bids is, on the face of it, a fair one and probably as good a system as can be devised, it does not in all cases result in the greatest economy. The privilege of a private employer to use the quotations of one seller in securing lower prices from another, is of great financial advantage. While the system of competitive bids usually results in obtaining low prices for a period of time, in the long run it may result in the discouragement of the more responsible bidders, and the introduction of an irresponsible class, who will take chances that municipal officers will accept their goods rather than indulge in the trouble necessary for rejection after the contract has been made. Later the system very often develops into a working agreement or actual collusion between the surviving firms who bid on the particular articles purchased. In such cases as responsible firms or new bidders enter competitions after the system has been developed, it is often found that the long experience of the older bidders has resulted in such friendships among the purchasing subordinates, or in the inspection force, as to prevent successful competition by outsiders.

The category of municipal conditions which prevent the introduction of scientific management, in the generally adopted term, might be continued to a much greater length. Sufficient has been presented to show that such systems as are applicable to private industrial operations are not applicable to municipal work. The truth is that scientific management can be introduced into municipal government only to the extent that politics is eliminated. If the public could be induced to take the view that the affairs of municipal corporations should be conducted on the same principles that govern the conduct of private business, the principles of scientific management could be applied to the administration of city affairs, but politics and scientific management will not mix, any more than oil and water will mix. It is true that here and there, among the various departments of a city, heads can be found who have made improvements to reduce labor costs, but even in such cases it will be found that further extension of the principles of good business management has been prevented by the influence of politics and in many other departments it will be found that politics have permeated the entire force and has put good business management out of the question.

Up to date the most successful attempt to introduce the principles of scientific management into the conduct of municipal government has been found in the introduction and extension of the contract system. The adoption of the contract system, however, is simply the recognition of good business management on the part of the contractor, for which the city pays a premium, rather than pay the excessive cost of work performed by municipal employees. This very fact illustrates the difficulty of securing scientific management in the conduct of municipal government, for it is generally conceded that contract work can be done as efficiently as the work performed by the city labor, at from one-half to three-fourths of the cost of the same amount of work when performed by city labor, and still allow a reasonable margin of profit to the contractor. Yet the labor unions are violently opposed to the adoption of the contract system by cities in the United States and seek everywhere to break it down and to replace it by municipal labor.

The introduction of the contract system is prevented by the cry "cheap labor and poor work." The general public accepts such arguments without consideration and does not realize that as regards the labor situation, it is governed by the law of supply and demand, and that the employees of contractors are as much entitled to employment for the support of their families, as a municipal employee, or that the municipal employees constitute an especially privileged class. As regards the quality of work, there is no question that contract work, performed under suitably prepared specifications and with rigid inspection, can be made better in every way than the work of the ordinary municipal force.

In view of the foregoing, the reader may consider that attempts to secure economy in the work of city employees is an altogether hopeless task. Such, however, is not the fact. Even under present conditions, great economies are possible to the competent, enthusiastic city official; particularly are such opportunities open to the officials of a new administration. Such men usually find large numbers of employees on the payroll, at a high rate of wages, who are retained for political reasons and who perform practically no beneficial service. It is comparatively easy to secure assent to the discharge of such individuals and the resistance which the official can offer to filling such vacant places with the supporters of his own administration constitutes the measure of saving which he can accomplish in the work of his labor force. The official will always, find that there are many other opportunities for substantial savings, although not by the introduction of scientific methods as they are generally understood.

As a concrete example, a condition which came under the writer's jurisdiction relating to the cost of teaming may serve as an illustration. On taking charge of a city department he found that the system had grown up whereby the city hired teams of private contractors as a matter of petty patronage. A list of nearly one thousand favored contractors had been formed, few of whom owned teams, although they were enabled to hire teams of legitimate contractors, place them in city employ at a rate considerably higher than the market rate, and receive the difference between the price paid to the owner of the team and the price paid to them by the city. Without special effort, by the simple expedient of dividing the city into districts, and submitting the teaming service to competition under suitably drawn specifications, the cost of hiring teams was reduced from an amount in excess of \$430,000 to approximately \$120,000 per year, a saving of approximately \$310,000 per year, without detriment to the service and with a normal increase in the amount of work done. Similar opportunities presented themselves which enabled the work of the department to be accomplished at a cost of nearly one million dollars less than during the last year of the previous administration. In the matter of teams, the expedient was so simple and so fair, both to the public and to the teaming contractors, that the former system has never been reverted to.

In order to accomplish such economies, the official must realize that in all human probability his tenure of office will end with the administration with which he is connected, and that his consideration should be the welfare of the public which he serves and his own reputation at the end of the administration rather than the retention of his position under the succeeding administration. City officials, during the past few years, have been greatly assisted in the efficient performance of their duties by the various municipal bodies which have been organized in the larger cities to supervise and investigate municipal conditions; through the medium of such bodies the worst existing municipal abuses have been exposed and business methods have been, to some extent, made possible, particularly has the excessive cost of municipal work been made the subject of exposure in elaborate reports, and systems of accounting to show the actual cost of municipal work in comparison with private enterprises have been installed. In general, however, such systems have not been utilized to their fullest possible extent for the advantage of the city, although their existence prevents the abuses which at one time existed. Laws framed with the object of separating the legislative from the executive departments are of great assistance as giving a great degree of independence to the municipal official in the expenditure of city funds. On the whole, although it seems impossible at present to introduce business methods in their entirety into city operations, substantial progress in that direction is being accomplished.

THE BOSTON CITY CHARTER

GEORGE R. NUTTER[1]
Boston

IT IS impossible to tell of the workings of the present charter of Boston, without some account of the political framework which preceded it, and of the conditions and circumstances which led to the change.

Prior to 1910, Boston had the old-fashioned form of government, consisting of a mayor, a board of aldermen, and a common council. The board of aldermen had been subject to various changes, and just prior to 1910, it consisted of thirteen members, nominated by districts, but elected at large, each voter voting for seven, and the thirteen receiving the highest number of votes constituting the board. The common council had three members for each of the twenty-five wards of the city. The ballot was long. All candidates were nominated in primaries of the national parties, carefully regulated by statute, and it was thus impossible to combine on any basis of broad citizenship, irrespective of party. The average citizen could not follow intelligently the working of this cumbersome machinery. There was an uneasy feeling in the community that waste and extravagance, if not worse, were flourishing; but nobody knew what to do about it, and no relief seemed in sight.

Then by a strange accident, when it was darkest, relief came. John F. Fitzgerald was elected mayor in 1905. A year of his administration set the community to thinking, and with a view, as his critics said, of forestalling an investigation by the legislature, Fitzgerald proposed a finance commission to be composed of seven citizens appointed by the mayor on the recommendation of various commercial bodies. This scheme was taken up by the Good Government Association; its adherents carried through the plan, but framed in a really effective way, with sufficient money for expenses and for counsel and the legislature gave the commission power to compel the attendance of witnesses. The commercial bodies rose to the occasion, and a capable commission under the leadership of

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[1] For some time prior to 1905 Mr. Nutter was a member of the executive committee of the Public School Association, which was a non-partisan, non-sectarian organization to secure the election of suitable persons to the school committee, and later was chairman of the committee. The Public School Association is still an important factor in municipal matters here, but in 1905 on becoming a member of the newly formed Good Government Association, Mr. Nutter resigned from the Association. Since then he has been on the executive committee of the Good Government Association. Mr. Nutter was also a member of the executive committee of the Committee of One Hundred, which was organized to procure the passage through the legislature of the new charter recommended by the finance commission, and later had charge of the referendum on the present charter.

Nathan Mathews, himself the mayor of fifteen years before, sat for eighteen months, and disclosed a state of extravagance and waste that stirred the community. As one result Fitzgerald went down to defeat in 1907.

The finance commission reported the draft of a charter to the legislature. Although politicians of both parties were against it, a committee of one hundred worked effectively for its passage. It passed the legislature. A choice between two plans was referred to the people by the legislature, and after an interesting fight, in which for the first time personalities were absent, plan two, which embodied the advanced ideas of the finance commission was adopted, and the charter became effective, much as the commission had drafted it.

The mayor was required to appoint as heads of departments only well recognized experts, but from the miscellaneous character of Mayor Fitzgerald's appointments previous to the new charter it was feared that the future mayor might not himself be an expert in recognizing experts, and there was a distinct feeling that somewhere there ought to be a power of confirmation. Many plans had been offered to the finance commission for such confirmation. But the final draft, and the charter when finally enacted, provided that the mayor should file with the civil service commission of the commonwealth a certificate that his appointee was a recognized expert for the position, and if within thirty days the commission filed with the city clerk their certificate that after careful inquiry he was found qualified, the appointment took effect. If nothing was filed, the appointment was void.

This provision, according to some, violated the principle of home rule. Some critics thought the child would never learn to walk in leading strings; others disliked to see it, for the want of some kind of leading string, fall into the pit. The latter view prevailed. There was a certain logic in the choice of the civil service commission, even though a state body, for this provision compelled the heads of the departments to measure up to the standards of the same body that passed upon the qualifications of subordinates, and as it will appear later, it played an important part in the first year of the charter.

The mayor likewise took the initiative in framing the budget. His term was made four years, with a mild attempt at recall at the end of the second year.

Both the board of aldermen and the common council were swept away, and in their place a single council of nine members was established, three elected each year for a term of three years. The council had the power to decrease the budget, but could not add to it; it could not initiate appropriations, but it could originate loan orders as well as pass on loans suggested by the mayor or originating in the council. This was its chief, and practically its only, effective power, though it also had the power to consolidate departments.

Party primaries were abolished. Party designation on the ballot disappeared likewise. Candidates were nominated by petition of 5000 registered voters, and placed on the ballot without designation, and in an order determined by lot.

There was added a unique and in many respects entirely novel agency in the shape of a permanent finance commission, composed of five members appointed by the governor, the chairman receiving a salary of $5000, and the remaining members serving without any compensation whatever. Its duties were to investigate the departments, to hold hearings and to report from time to time, but it had no participation in the government. The idea of course came from the success of the first commission, and the fact that the people needed a special body to watch the representatives selected and chosen by themselves excited no comment. It was apparently assumed that such a step was necessary.

The new charter therefore sought to make possible a short ballot, few officers, non-partisanship, and a government of experts, to the end that the people might be able to follow what was done, and to act intelligently in passing judgment on results.

The most important officer by far under the new charter is the mayor. For the first election in January, 1910, the Citizens Municipal League, a new municipal party, formed by the Committee of One Hundred, nominated for the mayoralty James J. Storrow, who as head of the newly constituted school committee, when the number had been reduced from 24 to 5, had served the city in an important position. His opponent was Fitzgerald, who after his first term had lost the election in 1907. The contest between the two, aided by the fact that the entire number of nine councillors had to be elected, and the further fact that it was the first election under the new charter, brought out a record breaking vote. Nearly 85.5 per cent of the registered voters, the highest in fifteen years, went to the polls. The contest was very close, and it was decided, as it had been in 1905, by the presence of a third candidate, the mayor of the interregnum from 1907 to 1909, who polled less than 2000 votes, but enough probably to defeat Storrow. Fitzgerald won, and thus became the first mayor under the new charter for the ensuing four years.

The election of Mayor Fitzgerald dampened the hopes of the supporters of the charter. The prospect had been bright for having at the head of affairs in the new forward movement a strong and capable executive; but with the election of Fitzgerald it seemed probable that the broad constructive possibilities of the charter would not materialize. Only the preventive features of the charter would be given a perfect trial and all that could be done would be to mark time until another election. And so in substance it has proved. Mayor Fitzgerald is in some respects a remarkable politician. Consciously or unconsciously he is a past master in the art of winning a crowd. His versatility catches the unthinking, his mental agility passes for cleverness with the dull witted, and by skilful management, which is rather easy in the case of Boston, where the citizens are sharply divided geographically, as well as by race and wealth, and are therefore sensitive to psychological appeals, he can hinder his opponents from combining. But he is superficial. He has no real standard of public service. While for the present he is at the head, he really belongs to a vanishing type. As soon as the standard rises in the mind of the public, his type will be impossible, and the community will turn to a very different leader. It was not to be expected that such an executive would rise to the real opportunity of the charter. It was enough if the charter could prevent him from repeating the history of his first administration of 1905–1907.

The first matter that arose was his appointment of heads of departments. This was of course his most important function. Under the old régime, members of the "machine" obtained the positions. Politics governed the choice. It was an accident if the head of the department knew anything of its requirements. Any member of the machine was equally fitted to superintend the streets, manage the penal institutions, or run the bath department. On the other hand, under the charter, an expert had to be appointed, and this involved not alone honesty but efficiency on the part of the candidate. The mayor started in in the old way, and came almost immediately up against the civil service feature of the charter.

Sufficient to say that in the first eight months the mayor's appointments fared as follows: He made 62 appointments to paid and unpaid positions, of which 37 were to paid, and 25 to unpaid positions. Of the appointments to paid positions, 23 were approved by the civil service commission, and 14 were not approved. Of the appointments to unpaid positions, 21 were approved, and 4 not approved. Of 22 new appointments to paid positions as heads of important departments, 15 according to a report of the finance commission appear to have been made as rewards for political support, and of these 15, 12 were not approved.

The result has been that on the whole the appointments that have finally become effective have been far better than under the former system. How much better they might have been, if the appointing power had lived up to the ideal standard possible under the charter, instead of being forced to consider only whether his candidate could "get by," no one can say. Such a possibility will not arise until a mayor of another type administers affairs. But for the first time in over ten years, there has really been an engineer at the head of the street department—or as it is now called, the department of public works—in place of a dispenser of patronage. Various of the departments have been consolidated, by the city council under authority given by the new charter, and while it would be too much to say that matters are not susceptible of improvement, they are much more satisfactory than before. The preventive feature of the civil service commission was thus put to the test and not found wanting.

The second important matter which has occurred during the present administration is its attitude toward the city finances. There is of course great pressure upon the mayor to accomplish certain public improvements. Some of this pressure arises from the growing desire of the community that more and more things be furnished by a municipality—a disposition the end of which is not yet in sight. Some of the pressure, however, in the spending of money and in the creation of new things for which money is to be spent, comes from the followers of the administration who desire contracts or employment. It is a matter of skill to yield to this pressure of one's friends and yet at the same time not increase the tax rate and encounter the counter pressure of the taxpayer. The only way really of doing this is to throw as much of the expenditure as possible into loans, which postpone to another day and another administration the obligation of payment, and enable the present administration to spend much more money without noticeably raising the tax rate.

There has been a determined effort under the new charter by the city council to adopt a more business-like attitude toward loans, and in particular not to allow loans to be contracted for current expenses, but to compel the ordinary expenses of the year and such matters as are regularly recurrent to be paid out of the tax levy. While at times and in spots the present mayor has seemed to sympathize with this financial policy, his course has not been uniform, and it can be said on the whole that he has been opposed to it. He has therefore been brought at various times into conflict with the city council over the question of loans, and his desire for loans has been to a considerable extent checked by the power which rests in the council of confirming loans. This is one illustration of the way in which the council has performed its function, and in this way its preventive power has been of value.

With the finance commission it was to be expected that the mayor would come into conflict, for two members out of the five appointed by the governor were members of the old finance commission which criticised his former administration. One of his first acts was to propose the creation of a bureau of municipal research on the New York plan, and his budget cut down the amount which the finance commission asked for its expenses. There has been more or less of a running fire of criticism between the finance commission and the mayor during the whole of his administration. The commission is of course without any power to enforce its recommendations, and in the long run the only tribunal that can decide whether its criticisms are well founded or not is the electorate, which has not yet been called upon to give any decision, although under the modest recall provision of the charter there was a significant majority vote in favor of submitting to the voters the question of the recall of the mayor.

An illustration of the manner in which the executive powers granted to the mayor may be used is afforded in the attitude of the mayor toward the present lighting system of the city. There was in existence a contract for the lighting of the city, with what is known as the Rising Sun Street Lighting Company, a corporation operated by the United Gas Improvement Company of Philadelphia. This contract existed at the time of Mayor Fitzgerald's first administration, and came to an end in 1906. Since that time it has been renewed for short periods awaiting some final disposition of the matter. Both the finance commission and the council have come to the conclusion that the cost of lighting can be materially reduced by the abrogation of the contract, and finally in November, 1911, bonds to the amount of $300,000, previously authorized by the mayor and council, were sold by direction of the mayor, the proceeds of which were to be used by the city in beginning a lighting system of its own, but although the proceeds of this loan have been in the treasury now for over a year and a half and the city has been paying interest on the loan, the mayor has refused for some reason which the community has not yet fathomed, to apply the proceeds toward street lighting, and the contract with the Rising Sun Street Lighting Company is still going on.

But there is after all no way in which the full executive powers granted to the mayor can be restrained or enforced, except through the force of public opinion. This is as it should be. If the citizens elect a man who does not administer the affairs of the city properly, there is no reason why the responsibility should not rest with the electorate and the city pay the penalty.

It was not supposable that the present mayor would have much sympathy with the present charter, and a significant symptom of his lack of sympathy is shown in the efforts which he and the other members of the machine have made to change the charter. Each year at the legislature a number of bills have been introduced to alter the charter, particularly to create a larger council to restore ward or district representation and to render it easier for candidates to be nominated. Thus far by the united efforts of various citizens' organizations these changes have been defeated.

So far as the mayor is concerned, therefore, it can fairly be said in conclusion that the city has not made much progress under the new charter, but on the other hand the preventive measures of the charter have proved to be efficacious, and have checked a recurrence of many of the evils of his first administration.

The history of the council under the new charter has been as satisfactory as could have been expected. The position of city councillor is not one of much distinction. The number of councillors was in itself a compromise between those who wished a large council and those who wished the smaller form of commission government. Thus they avoided the disadvantages of the large council without, perhaps, acquiring the advantages of the small. The powers of the council are very limited, and the result has been that it has been difficult to get men of large affairs to run for the position of councillor. At the first election under the charter, the Citizens Municipal League found difficulty in obtaining candidates. Under these conditions, the record that the council has made has been very satisfactory. The majority during the whole period has been made up of candidates of the Citizens Municipal League, recommended by the Good Government Association, and the machine has never had even a fair working minority in it. While there has been some playing at politics and more or less riding at windmills by some councillors who had more zeal than stability in their make-up, the council has developed several valuable members—notably its present president, Thomas J. Kenny—who have taken the lead in formulating the one thing for which it has stood and which thus far has distinguished its administration. This has been the financial policy of the city with regard to loans.

The council has steadily pursued the policy of compelling all annual recurrent matters of indebtedness to be paid for out of the tax levy and not to be raised by loan. It has likewise been able to look upon the city as a whole and to treat all the different districts with reasonable fairness in the apportionment of loans. This has been shown in a compilation of the municipal work in the several districts which was prepared and laid before the legislature at the time it was sought to restore the large number of the old-fashioned large council. It may be said, therefore, that the present council has been a success.

A striking feature of the new charter was the necessity of the confirmation of the mayor's appointments by the Massachusetts civil service commission. This was a new feature; it was a work which the commission of course did not seek, and one in which to be successful they would have to encounter considerable odium in the case of an improper mayor. This turned out to be their fate. The commission started the performance of its duties by the inauguration of a standard which up to that time had never been consciously applied to Boston. While theoretically some special qualifications beyond character were supposed to be required of a candidate, there had in fact seldom been any real desire to obtain an expert in any particular line. The commission set up a reasonably high standard with the result that during the first year one candidate after another of the mayor's was rejected, always to the candidate's discomfiture and oftentimes to some confusion in the public mind. But it gradually began to dawn upon the community that to fill in a competent manner a position requiring special knowledge, one must be something more than even a good husband and father, and that the mere fact that no criminal proceedings or anything of that kind had been brought against a candidate was not in itself a particularly lofty recommendation. The result was that after the first year or so the quality of the candidates very much improved, and there have been fewer rejections by the civil service commission. The commission therefore is entitled to the credit for establishing now definitely in the public mind a higher and more satisfactory standard for the heads of departments that ever prevailed before, and it will be difficult for any mayor to appoint the old style of candidate.

For this result the head of the commission, Charles Warren, was largely responsible, and for this he paid the penalty as he was not reappointed by Governor Foss. How long this feature of the charter will really be effective will depend of course upon how long the standard of the civil service commission itself is kept up. It is entirely well understood in Massachusetts, as it is in New York and various of the other states, that the city machines in the great capitals in order to prevent restraint by the legislature must aim not only at controlling the city but at controlling the legislature itself. There has been a very determined effort on the part of the Boston machine in this direction already, and of course when if ever that control is successful, the present safeguard will disappear. Up to that time, however, it will be effective if it is managed in the future as it has been in the past, and it deserves credit for the ideal of public service which it inaugurated in dealing with the first appointments of Mayor Fitzgerald.

The finance commission has been an active feature of the new charter. It was perhaps the first bureau of municipal research to be paid for out of the tax levy, and not by private subscription; but one or two other cities are said to have followed the example. Its reason for existence was of course historical. The old finance commission had been found to be so effective and its members had devoted so much disinterested service to the city that it was thought advisable to continue the work in the charter. The humor of constituting a special board appointed by the governor to investigate and make sure that those whom the people elected were faithful to their trust has not been wholly appreciated. Yet since the individual citizen has not the time or the patience to follow in detail the administration of the city, a board that can represent him has a place, if it really does represent him and can win his confidence. In spite of the glaring incongruity with the home rule theory, the finance commission has been a success largely because of the qualities of its personnel.

Governor Draper appointed as the first head of the finance commission

John A. Sullivan, who was one of the members of the old finance commission. There could not have been any better appointment, or one that showed more thoroughly the governor's sympathy with the new charter. Mr. Sullivan began his political career not as a theorist, but as a practical politician, and he has that familiarity with all sorts and conditions of men, their wants, and their ways of looking at things which comes only from that side of political life. At the same time he has developed in his work in the old finance commission and as head of the present board a conception of public service which when united with a study and grasp of details has enabled him to render invaluable service to the community. The same spirit has animated the other members of the commission. The result has been that the board has been active and vigorous, and its opinions have met with the respect of the community. It is true that at times it has a tendency to mingle a little too much acid in its criticisms of current events, but perhaps under the attacks to which the old régime has subjected it this is merely a defect of its qualities.

In any review of these various administrative departments, it becomes at once apparent how potent is the human side of administration, and how lifeless and mechanical the machinery might become without the proper quality of man to run it. Sullivan, Kenny and Warren are perhaps the three men who from this human side each in his own way have contributed the most to make the charter a success. The finance commission might easily have played an inglorious part; the council might have let the loans slip by; and it would have been less disagreeable as well as far more profitable for the individual for the civil service commission to have given up any high standard of public service and to have passed out a confirmation to whatever type of candidate appeared. These men and those who worked with them appreciated the opportunities they had in laying a good foundation for the beginning of the new charter, and they improved them. The charter was thus fortunate at the outset. But the real test may be still ahead. At any time by a poor appointment of the governor, or by an unthinking selection by the electorate, the advantage can be lost, and the charter weakened. It certainly will not run itself.

The method of nominating candidates under the new charter is by petition signed by 5000 registered voters. It was urged at the time the charter was passed and since then at each effort before the legislature to change it that this provision prevented the poor man from running and threw the success to the rich. This objection was due to a curious misconception. It was never intended under the new charter, and it certainly never should be intended that any one might run for office who might feel so inclined. The world may owe a man a living, but it certainly does not owe him an office or an opportunity to get one. There is no occasion for any one to run for office unless he is either backed by a number of his fellow-citizens, in other words by some kind of a municipal party, or is sufficiently well known so that he can appeal to a sufficient number of supporters to aid him to procure the necessary signatures. This is just what has happened. No one during the last four elections who was really and seriously worth while, has been prevented from running. No one who ran has needed to pay out much of his own money. One prominent candidate, who has been twice elected by a sound majority, stated before the legislature that he had no difficulty in procuring the signatures. He sent to two hundred friends the necessary blanks, and within two weeks had 5000 signatures, besides the signatures procured for him by the Citizens Municipal League. His total expense was for stamps and envelopes, and amounted to $8.50. On the other hand, innumerable self candidates have been shut out by this provision from taxing the patience of the electorate, and encumbering the ballot.

There has been, however, one grave defect in this system. The candidates are not sifted out by a preliminary vote, as in the days of the primary. This has not made any difference in the case of the council, for the candidates have been few and the ballot short. But in the single election for mayor, the presence of other candidates resulted in the victorious candidate really representing only a minority of the voters, and the result was no more satisfactory than in 1905, when precisely the same thing happened. It is difficult to suggest a remedy, except by the concentration of interest in the candidates of distinctly municipal parties. The German method of two elections has been adopted at least once in municipal charters granted in Massachusetts since the Boston charter, but while the method is said to have worked well, it was in much smaller cities.

It was of course a corollary to the method of nominations that no party names could appear upon the ballot. This has had the great advantage of destroying the artificial barrier which the national party lines raised between citizens whose objects were really the same and who otherwise would have coöperated in municipal matters. Thus, before the charter, under the old system, the Democratic city committee represented the machine. To oppose its candidates, only a Republican could be nominated, towards whom the independent Democrats were lukewarm, or an independent Democrat, who of course could not win in the Republican primaries. So the opposition to the machine was hopelessly split. The present method has rather cleverly reversed the process in the case of the council. The Citizens Municipal League candidates present a united front, while as there is no longer any candidate who is strictly the candidate of the Democratic party, any Democrat can run without necessarily losing caste, and the machine vote is thus split.

While the result of the elections under the new methods have been satisfactory, except perhaps in the choice of mayor, the interest shown by the electorate has been curiously uneven, and in the case of the elections for the council only, has been disappointingly slight. The first election in January, 1910, was naturally one of great moment. Not only a mayor, but the entire board of nine councillors were to be chosen. The election followed the thorough canvass of the city in the referendum between the two plans submitted to the voters by the legislature. The candidates for mayor were prominent. Large sums of money, altogether too large, were spent in advertising. The emotional appeals which now must attend any effort of the popular will, were skilful and varied. Four candidates ran for mayor, nineteen for the nine positions as councillor. Over 85 per cent of the registered voters came to the polls, a percentage higher than in any election for over twenty years with one exception, which was only one-hundredth of 1 per cent higher. In 1911, the contest was only for council. Nine candidates ran for the three places. Two of the three chosen were nominated by the Citizens Municipal League. The influence of the machine was desultory, but noticeable, and the election of the remaining councillor might be classed as the result of that influence. But only between 52 and 53 per cent of the registered voters came to the polls. The falling off was not in the rich section where there is a popular, but erroneous, impression that the interest is less, but generally throughout the city. In 1912 there were seven candidates for the three positions as councillor. The machine had a distinct ticket and made a distinct fight. The Citizens Municipal League ran its ticket, and there was one independent. The league won a decisive victory, with all three of its candidates, but only between 45 and 46 per cent of the voters came to the polls. This last January, only four candidates ran. The machine retired from the contest. One independent, who was supposed to have had some machine backing, was elected, and two candidates of the league. Between 41 and 42 per cent of the registered voters came to the polls, probably the smallest in the history of the city.

These figures are interesting and at the same time disappointing. It is difficult to generalize from only four elections. But they seem to indicate that in the important election of the mayor, the electorate takes wide interest, but at other times hardly any at all. Perhaps the reasons are not far to seek. The mayoralty is not only by far the chief office, but the candidates for it are far more widely known. All the artificial stimuli for arousing popular interest are applied. Publicity is extensive, by circulars and posters, and in the newspapers. In the off election there is little doing. Little money is spent. Little publicity is given. There are almost no issues in Boston affairs. The only issues are the personalities, and these in the council fights are little known to the voters. It is undoubtedly true that under the old method two stimuli were important which are wanting now. The first of these was the national party organization, which was permanent in character and more highly organized than is the one municipal party which has come into being under the charter. The other was the number of candidates running, who represented all geographical districts and naturally made every effort to bring all the votes of their friends and neighbors. These do not, however, indicate that the old method was the better. It excited more interest, but led to worse administration. It may rather be that elections might well be less frequent, or perhaps the only remedy is the slow growth of public sentiment. It is early yet to tell.

In conclusion, the question naturally arises: Whatever may be the merits or demerits of particular features of the charter, what in general has been its effect on the city of Boston? Has it enabled the community to carry out more definitely its conception of government? Will it in the future aid the community in the development of this conception? So far as any conception of government is concerned, there is a pleasing fiction that the people have a clear and distinct standard, but are prevented from putting it fully into effect by what are known as the "bosses." Like many such fictions, this is a half truth. It is true that the "machine" must be disposed of before the will of the people can find expression, but after the machine has been disposed of there must be something to express.

Frankly speaking, the Boston electorate has been for some time in rather an elementary condition in its conception of municipal administration. The individual has had in a general way a desire for better government, but neither individually nor collectively have the citizens had very clear standards on the subject. In other ways, such as its Chamber of Commerce, Boston has made great progress during the last few years. But in political matters it cannot be said to have been so successful in realizing a standard for public service, and in effectively measuring its public servants by that standard. There is much to excuse this. To develop a definite standard of public service the electorate ought to be homogeneous and well put together—the various classes of its citizens ought not to be separated, particularly by artificial barriers. But Boston has some very peculiar obstacles and some very peculiar artificial barriers with which to contend.

There is not only the natural chasm between the rich and the poor upon which the so-called tribunes of the people are so fond of dwelling; but the different sections of the city, both in their geographical situation and from their former political conditions, are singularly local. Each is a little world by itself, and until recently there has been difficulty in sinking local feeling. For example, one portion of the city, East Boston, is an island, whose inhabitants still talk of going to the "city." In the opposite direction, Roxbury was once an independent town before its union with Boston. The last addition to the city, which became a part of it in 1912, was of course an independent town. Fate has gathered in Ward 11—the Back Bay District—those who are supposed to be well off in this world's goods, and who are therefore supposed to have very different ideas in the way of government than their less fortunate fellows. In addition, the city is divided into various races, each of which has until very recently associated largely by itself, so that there is a vertical division, as it were, among the citizens, as well as the usual horizontal divisions made by wealth.

A large portion of the substantial business element do not live in Boston at all, but merely transact business there, and take no part in municipal politics. In this respect Boston is probably the only city in America whose suburbs are considerably more populous than the municipality itself. Of the million and a half inhabitants who make up metropolitan Boston, the city proper with its 700,000 inhabitants contains with some few exceptions all the "slums;" while the business element and small householders who would tend to raise the average intelligence of the electorate, sleep outside the city and take no part in its political affairs. It is likewise very difficult for the average citizen to keep much run of municipal affairs. The matters coming before the mayor and council for solution are numerous, generally small, and encumbered with a mass of detail and often uninteresting. Except for the office of mayor, the candidates are not as a rule well known outside of their particular districts, until at least they have been elected and justified themselves by their career in the council.

The number of city employees, including women, is more than one-tenth the number of registered voters, and their views on city matters are necessarily influenced considerably by their positions. Only about one in every five of the registered voters pay any tax at all outside of the poll tax, and the women who form the larger part of the resident taxpayers, owing doubtless to the common practice of putting real estate in the names of wives, of course have no vote at all except for school committee. Criticisms of waste and extravagance have thus no direct personal effect upon many of the electorate, who have not yet learned that while they do not pay for such administration directly, yet indirectly the burden of it falls most heavily on them. If any one expected that as soon as the fetters of the old régime were removed the city would start forward with a confident step into the possibilities ahead, he certainly would have indulged an unfounded hope. The acts of the electorate under the new charter have been often uncertain and unexpected. It has been feeling its way and learning, as it were, to walk. Thus the victory of plan two was a joyful surprise; but it was followed by restoring to power the very mayor whose acts in his first administration had brought around the agitation for the new charter.

One of the city officials under the old régime who went to jail for a small fraud on the city, was later sent by a part of the city electorate as their representative in the legislature. At the very first election, however, the better class of councillors were elected, and the majority of the council have continued to be of the better type. Yet at the last election a good candidate for the council, endorsed by the Citizens Municipal League, but unfortunately not particularly well known in the city, outside of his own district, was defeated by a self-nominated candidate, who in 1905 had run as an independent for mayor, and regarded by his fellow-citizens as more or less of a joke, had succeeded in obtaining for that office 457 votes!

The standard which was set up by the civil service commission created as much surprise among those who endorsed it as it did consternation among the machine. It is uncertainty of judgment that makes the average citizen want to lean on somebody, and this want has led to the power of the machine and the Good Government Association. Each of them has decided views and decided recommendations; and it is easier to follow one or the other than to examine the facts and to arrive at an independent conclusion. But while some of the results have been unexpected and disappointing, the general tendency has been in the right direction.

From the past three years, therefore, the future is hopeful, but by no means certain. The charter is not yet a fixture. It has met with opposition each year at the legislature, entirely from the type of politicians whose activities it has supplanted, but who never sleep. The Boston machine is a strong, if not the strongest element in the Democratic party, and if the Democratic party acquires control of the legislature—as may well result from the present demoralized condition of the Republican party throughout the commonwealth—it is by no means impossible that the charter would go or at all events that its leading features would be weakened and changed. Furthermore, a governor may at any time by improper, or as is more likely by weak or colorless, appointments, destroy the efficiency of the finance commission, and the civil service commission, which after all are grafted rather illogically upon the charter. The only thing which will be beyond the powers of the legislature is the spirit of the people. If this develops a definite and certain standard of public service, as it now seems likely in course of time to develop, it will either prevent any change in the charter or may continue to live under any changes which the vicissitudes of politics may bring. The future alone can tell.

LEGISLATIVE INTERFERENCE IN MUNICIPAL AFFAIRS AND THE HOME RULE PROGRAM IN NEW YORK

BY LAURENCE ARNOLD TANZER[1]

LEGISLATIVE interference in municipal affairs has for many years been the worst stumbling block in the path of municipal reform. Nowhere have its evils been more keenly felt than in the state of New York. The protests against it date at least as far back as 1846, when Henry C. Murphy of Brooklyn vainly urged upon the constitutional convention which was revising the state constitution, the adoption of a prohibition of special acts for the incorporation of cities and villages. Since then the evil has grown by leaps and bounds. Proposals looking to the protection of cities from it were again made in the constitutional commission of 1872 and by the Tilden commission of 1875, but were again unsuccessful.

In 1890 the Fassett committee appointed by the state senate to investigate the subject of municipal government in the state reported that in the six years from 1884 to 1889 inclusive the legislature had passed 1284 acts relative to the thirty cities in the state, of which 390 affected the city of New York. In the one year 1886, as Professor Goodnow says (*Municipal Home Rule,* pp. 23, 24): "280 of the 681 acts passed by the legislature, i.e., between one-third and one-half of its entire work, interfered directly with the affairs of some particular county, city, village, or town, specifically and expressly named."

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[1] Mr. Tanzer has been a member of the committee on legislation of the Citizens' Union of New York City for a number of years, and chairman of the Union's charter committee. In the latter capacity he has been actively concerned in the study and discussion of all the charters recently proposed for New York City, commencing with the Ivins charter in 1909, and was particularly active in aiding in the defeat of the Gaynor charter in 1911, about which he wrote an article which appeared in the first number of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW (vol. i, p. 61). He is counsel for the Municipal Government Association of New York State and chairman of its committee on municipal home rule. The municipal empowering act and the home rule constitutional amendment were drawn by Mr. Tanzer with the assistance of a number of others, most prominent among whom was J. Hampden Dougherty of New York. The optional city charter bill was drawn by Carlos C. Alden, dean of the Buffalo Law School, and has recently been revised and amended by Mr. Tanzer. The non-partisan municipal election law was drawn by William Allaire Shortt of New York. On behalf of the Municipal Government Association, Mr. Tanzer has taken part in substantially all the activities mentioned in the article, the political activities having been managed by J. O. Hammitt, Robert S. Binkerd and Walter T. Arndt, all of New York. Mr. Tanzer has intervened for the Association and filed a brief in the case of Hamitt vs. Gaynor now pending in the New York supreme court, involving some questions as to the interpretation of the municipal empowering act. An article which he wrote on the home rule bill appeared in *Bench and Bar* for April, 1913.

During the past winter he was retained by the New York State factory investigating commission to take charge of the drafting of their legislation.

By the time of the constitutional convention of 1894 which prepared the present constitution, the situation had become so acute as to compel attention. After careful consideration and prolonged discussion, the convention hit upon an expedient which was expected to stem the tide of special legislation without prohibiting it altogether. The constitution of 1894 divided all the cities of the state into three classes according to population (New York City being then alone in the first class); required every bill relating to a single city or to less than all the cities of a class to be submitted to the mayor in New York City and to the mayor and legislative body in every other city affected for acceptance, after a public hearing; and required that every such bill not so accepted could become law only upon being repassed by each house of the legislature subject to the governor's veto as in the case of other bills.

The framers of the constitution of 1894 hoped that special legislation if first submitted to the local officials after a public hearing would be limited to such as was actually needed by the localities to be affected and that its volume would be greatly diminished. This hope has not been realized. Special local legislation has increased in constantly growing volumes. A somewhat rough calculation of the number of special laws relating to particular cities, villages, towns and counties passed in each year since the enactment of the constitution of 1894 as compared with the total number of laws passed shows the following result:

YEAR	SPECIAL AND LOCAL LAWS AFFECTING CITIES, TOWNS, VILLAGES AND COUNTIES	ALL LAWS PASSED	PERCENTAGE
1895	433	1045	41
1896	460	1003	45
1897	332	797	41
1898	238	676	35
1899	265	741	35
1900	279	776	35
1901	303	734	41
1902	236	61	38
1903	270	645	41
1904	282	760	37
1905	333	761	43
1906	292	699	41
1907	336	764	43
1908	216	524	41
1909	235	596	39
1910	259	707	36
1911	303	903	33
1912	194	553	35
Total..........	5266	13301	39

During the eighteen years which have elapsed since the adoption of the constitution of 1894 special legislation of this character has not diminished, but has largely increased in quantity and has also increased in its proportion to the total amount of legislation. The condition remains substantially the same as that described by the Fassett committee.

This special legislation for the most part is or ought to be unnecessary, because it deals with matters which the localities affected ought to be allowed to deal with in their own way. For example, among the laws passed at the session of 1912, were laws prescribing the manner in which the amount due to contractors for public work in Albany should be ascertained and paid; authorizing Albany to improve its river front and providing the method of procedure; creating a board of sewer commissioners for the village of Albion; increasing the amount of sewer construction bonds which might be issued by Binghamton from $125,000 to $135,000 and the amount which may be issued in any one year from $25,000 to $35,000; creating a firemen's relief and pension fund for the fire department of Binghamton; authorizing the common council of Buffalo to fix the salary of the superintendent of education; increasing the amount of bonds which may be issued by Buffalo for the construction of a municipal hospital from $250,000 to $300,000 and the rate of interest from 4½ to 6 per cent; authorizing the division of Buffalo into tax sections for the purpose of assessing taxes; authorizing Buffalo to construct buildings for conventions and the like; changing the title of sergeants of police in Buffalo to lieutenants of police, changing the salary of superintendent of horses in the police department, etc.; authorizing the reinstatement of firemen in Buffalo who have resigned; directing the park board of Buffalo to recommend to the common council ordinances for spraying and treating trees and shrubs adjacent to streets and public places; increasing the maximum number of policemen in the village of Canandaigua from five in all to one for every one thousand inhabitants and fixing the salary of the acting chief of police; authorizing payment of the amount due the Grattan Construction Company for constructing a certain sewer in an alley in Cohoes; authorizing Corning to pave and grade certain streets; authorizing the common council of Cortland to establish building lines; authorizing the town of Eastchester to spend $8000 for a fire engine; raising the salaries of the aldermen of Elmira from $100 to $200; authorizing Fulton to borrow $3575.69 to pay school teachers; providing for a fire marshal in Ithaca; authorizing the board of education of Lockport to reconstruct the Union School building; authorizing the corporation counsel of Mount Vernon to appoint an assistant corporation counsel; authorizing the city counsel of Newburgh to spend $5000 to entertain delegates to the conventions of the State Firemen's Association and of the Grand Army of the Republic; raising the maximum salary of the deputy city clerk of Newburgh from $500 to $900; fixing the salary of the vice-chairman of the board of aldermen of New York City and of the chairman of the committee on finance at $4000 each; permitting any head of department in New York City to grant leaves of absence without pay and to make deductions from salaries by way of fine; adding to the New York fire department veterinarians with rank and salaries the same as deputy chiefs; authorizing New York City to convert certain specified market property into dock property; abolishing the grade of doorman in the New York City police department; requiring the comptroller of New York City to pay contractors on the basis of 85 per cent of work done instead of 70 per cent; authorizing the board of estimate of New York City to inquire into and pay the claims of John P. Worstell and Joseph P. McNamara for work, labor and services; increasing from 10,000 to 40,000 square feet the space in the New York hall of records to be allotted to the register and commissioner of records; providing for an assistant counsel to the sheriff of New York County at a salary of $3000; increasing from $10,000 to $12,500 the sum which the common council of North Tonawanda is required to raise annually for the use of the board of fire commissioners; requiring the county clerk of Onondaga County to index unpaid taxes and assessments; authorizing the village of Port Chester to borrow $3000 to repair the old Willett Avenue fire house; providing for a property clerk in the department of public safety of Rochester; requiring the common council of Rome to designate a single newspaper to publish official notices; providing in great detail for the licensing of dogs in the village of Saratoga Springs; authorizing certain streets in Saratoga Springs to be sprinkled with oil or other substance; fixing the salaries of the president of the common council of Watervliet at $500 and of the aldermen at $350.

These are fair samples of the kind of legislation on which the legislature of the state of New York has been expending its time and attention, to the detriment of its legitimate function of legislating for the state at large, and to the injury of the cities and villages in every section of the state, large as well as small.

The compromise of 1894 must be pronounced a failure. The restrictions on special legislation imposed by the constitution of New York have been no more effective than the prohibitions of special legislation which have been contained in the constitutions of other states and for the same reasons: the diversity of conditions in many different cities variously situated and circumstanced makes special legislation absolutely necessary in order to provide for their varying needs; and the demand for special legislation most often comes from within the cities themselves. This demand, however, is largely an irresponsible demand: it comes too often from persons or parties seeking a change in the law for selfish purposes and is addressed to a legislature composed for the most part of representatives from other localities not conversant with or interested in the needs of the locality affected and under no responsibility to its people. The real objection lies not against the enactment of special legislation, but against the kind of special legislation enacted, the manner in which it originates and in which it is enacted; not to special legislation as such but to the imposition of special legislation on the city by the legislature. The evil to be corrected is not special legislation, but legislative interference. The remedy is not to prohibit or restrict special legislation, but to do away with legislative interference in municipal affairs by transferring to the cities themselves the right to adopt their own necessary special legislation and to manage their own affairs with only so much control by the legislature as the interests of the state as a whole require.

This remedy—municipal home rule—is now being actively advocated by powerful influences in New York. For many years various cities which have been trying to obtain the enactment of necessary legislation have had bitter experience of the evils of legislative control. No bill could be enacted whose passage could not be made to appear to those in control of the legislature desirable for reasons appealing to them, too often reasons of personal or party advantage. While unnecessary and vicious special legislation was being passed in great profusion, much needed and beneficial special legislation often failed of passage. Cities which desired to change their form of government in some particular respect or to substitute for it a commission form of government or to obtain additional powers could not get their bills through the legislature and often could not even obtain a hearing.

The helplessness of any one city seeking relief from a legislature governed by considerations of party politics and overwhelmed by a mass of proposals for general, special and private legislation was so apparent and so hopeless as to lead the cities to combine for their mutual protection. This combination has been effected along two lines, one official and the other unofficial—the conference of mayors and other city officials and the Municipal Government Association of New York State. The mayors' conference originated in 1910 with the object of bringing city officials together to discuss matters of common interest and to work together for the common welfare of the cities. The Municipal Government Association, organized in January, 1912, was a combination of citizens of different cities who had been striving separately for greater freedom in municipal affairs and who now decided to unite in an effort to obtain a larger measure of home rule for the cities of the state.

The Municipal Government Association promptly formulated and announced a legislative program intended to secure to cities the benefits of home rule. This program comprised the following legislation: (1) A municipal empowering act granting to every city the power of regulating its own property and affairs; (2) an amendment to the constitution of the state securing these powers against legislative encroachment, authorizing the citizens of each city to adopt and amend home rule charters and prohibiting special legislation concerning purely municipal affairs; (3) an optional city charter bill providing simplified forms of city government which the citizens of any city might adopt in place of their present charter; and (4) a non-partisan municipal elections bill. Bills were drawn to carry these recommendations into effect and were submitted to and approved by a number of men versed in municipal affairs. The first three of these measures were intended to confine to general laws the activity of the legislature in purely municipal affairs and to leave all special legislation on that subject to the city or its inhabitants, the fourth was intended to concentrate attention on the local exercise of these enlarged powers by freeing municipal elections so far as possible from state and national party influences.

Special legislation relating to municipal affairs consists of two kinds of measures—those determining what powers a city shall exercise and those determining how its government shall be exercised and carried on and its local affairs administered. The first of these two classes is rendered unnecessary by the municipal empowering act.

The municipal empowering act proceeds upon the theory that a city should have full power to regulate, manage and control its property and local affairs and that this power should be granted alike to all cities. The act contains such a grant in general terms and for greater caution it contains also a specific grant (which does not operate to limit the general grant) of a number of specified powers which together embrace substantially all the powers now vested in particular cities. This grant of power is not in substitution for, but is in addition to existing powers and fills up gaps in powers now existing in any city. Every existing power is to be exercised in the manner now provided in the charter of the city; the manner of exercising new powers granted by the act is to be determined by ordinance, subject to safeguards imposed by the act itself on the power to issue municipal obligations, to sell or lease real estate and to grant franchises where such power does not now exist.

The constitutional amendment by redeclaring the general grant of powers preserves it against legislative interference and also extends it to villages. The amendment prohibits special legislation regarding muncipal affairs, and confers upon the citizens of each city and village the power to enact such special legislation, to be drafted by local commissioners or convention and adopted by referendum. At the same time it expressly preserves the power of the legislature to legislate as to matters of state concern.

The optional city charter bill offers to any city the choice of six different forms of government which may upon petition and by referendum be adopted in place of its existing government. This bill would offer a large measure of home rule to all cities pending adoption of the constitutional amendment, and after its adoption to those cities which might not wish to frame individual charters. The forms of government of which the choice is thus given are (1) commission government, (2) the city manager plan, (3) the mayor and council plan with a council of five elected at large, (4) the same, with a council of nine, (5) the mayor and council plan with a council elected by districts or wards, (6) the plan now embodied in the second class cities law (known as the White charter) which adds to the mayor and council a board of estimate and apportionment, a board of contract and supply, and other specified officers and departments.

The non-partisan municipal elections bill would empower any city electing by referendum to come under its provisions to elect municipal officers on a separate ticket having no party designations and would thus carry a step further the idea of separating municipal elections from state and national elections which has been only partly put into practice by the provision of the present constitution requiring municipal elections to be held so far as possible in odd-numbered years.

These bills were all introduced in the legislature of 1913, the constitutional amendment in somewhat different form having already been introduced during the session of 1912. Before their introduction drafts had been widely distributed and publicly discussed. The mayors' conference held at Utica in June, 1912, adopted a resolution urging upon the legislature the grant of enlarged powers to cities and the conference through its legislative committee has been active in support of the entire home rule program. The advocacy of this program was carried on to such good effect that the state platforms of all the leading political parties adopted in 1912 called for the enactment of home rule legislation.

In his first message to the legislature in January, 1913, Governor Sulzer pronounced in support of home rule and in opposition to "legislative tinkering and invasion." In March, 1913, a home rule dinner and conference was held at Albany under the joint auspices of the Muncipal Government Association and the mayors' conference at which the legislative leaders and public men of all parties spoke in favor of the home rule program.

The municipal empowering act was passed by the legislature without opposition and was signed by the governor and became law April 7, 1913. The other bills, however, made no progress in the legislature and remained in committee.

Since the enactment of the municipal empowering act there has been some misconception as to what has actually been accomplished by it.

This was due largely to a failure to realize the fact that this measure constituted only a part of the home rule program. The municipal empowering act has extended the powers of cities and has made unnecessary the many enabling acts heretofore introduced in the legislature; it has not put the cities in a position to draw or amend their own charters and so has not dispensed with the necessity of special legislation for that purpose. In some quarters, however, the impression prevailed for a time that the purposes of the constitutional amendment had been attained by the municipal empowering act. That act was dubbed "the home rule law" and a number of special bills amending city charters with respect to administrative detail were vetoed by the governor on the theory that their purposes could be accomplished under that act. This position appeared to find support in an opinion issued from the attorney-general's office.

Subsequently, however, the scope of the municipal empowering act was thoroughly discussed at the mayors' conference at Binghamton in June, 1913, following an able address by Attorney-General Thomas Carmody, which clearly pointed out what the act had accomplished and what still remained to be done. As a result of this discussion, it is believed that a clearer understanding of the situation now prevails. The conference adopted a resolution urging the enactment of the optional city charter bill at the extraordinary session of the legislature which had been called for June 16. The governor after conferring with the legislative committee of the mayors' conference and with representatives of the Municipal Government Association recommended to this session the enactment of that bill and the bill in amended form has been reintroduced; but at the present writing its fate remains uncertain.

Much has thus been accomplished in the direction of municipal home rule in a short time and a great impetus has been given to the movement. The outlook for its success in the near future is bright.

THE STREETS OF NEW YORK CITY

BY FREDERICK F. BLACHLY[1]

Colorado

NEW YORK CITY has 2677 miles[2] of streets, comprised within an area of less than 327 square miles.[3] The value of this land with its improvements is $9,469,000,000,[4] a value nearly as great as one-half of the 512,660,306 acres[5] of farm land and property west of the Mississippi River, or one-fourth as great as the entire 878,798,000 acres of farm land in the United States. If these streets were placed end to end they would extend nearly 50 feet wide from New York to San Francisco. Throughout this distance there would be on each sidewalk a constant line[6] of people every 6 feet apart, and at the busiest portions of this street during the ten rush hours of the day 1400 vehicles[7] would pass a given point each hour. When it is considered that about one-twelfth of this tiny plot of land (New York) is given over to the streets, it becomes evident that the street problem is of the highest social, economic and political significance.

> Here persons of all ages and all tastes go to meet one another, to talk over the affairs of the day, to be entertained, to eat, to drink, to inspect shop windows, to do marketing, to buy and sell merchandise, and to perform a thousand offices which the exigencies of city life make profitable, healthful, or agreeable.[8]

If the main arteries of traffic are misplaced or are too narrow thousands of hours are lost each day. If the residential streets are too wide land which should have been used for buildings, parks or playgrounds is unnecessarily sacrified and the taxpayers are compelled to pay for paving and maintaining an unnecessary surface of the streets. This cost of paving, maintaining and cleaning the streets forms one of the heaviest burdens of taxation and so automatically creates high rents.

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[1] Mr. Blachly is a graduate of Oberlin College, class of 1911. During the past two years he has been doing graduate work at Columbia working for his doctor's degree in political science. He is also an instructor in politics in New York University.

[2] Reports from the different departments having charge of the streets.

[3] *Report of the Commissioners of Taxes and Assessments*, 1912, p. 25.

[4] *Report of the Commissioners of Taxes and Assessments*, 1912, pp. 11 and 12. This amount includes the real estate taxable, $7,861,898,890; and exempt city, state and national, $1,607,105,809; total, $9,469,004,699.

[5] *Bulletin Thirteenth Census*, 1910, abstracted, "Farms and Farm Property by States," pp. 1–7.

[6] From estimated population given by board of health.

[7] Dr. Clifford Richardson, *Popular Science Monthly*, August, 1912.

[8] Quotation from Dr. Soper in Beard's *American City Government*, p. 242.

The governmental and political significance of the problem lies in the necessity for determining through charter provisions the interrelationship of the several departments dealing with the streets: The borough president, the department of highways, the street cleaning department, the board of health, and the department of water supply, gas and electricity, and finally the local boards, in the various districts. The charter must define which of these bodies must lay out, pave and keep up the streets. It must also indicate who shall bear the initial cost and the up-keep, and who shall determine upon the amount of money to be spent for each part of the work. It should also provide for a body empowered to see that the work is properly done and that the appropriations are spent to advantage. In all of these questions the public has a vital interest. It must determine which offices shall be merely administrative and which political and determine whether or not political or business methods shall prevail. The problem is, therefore, complex in the extreme and can only be solved through trial and experiment.

According to the charter of Greater New York, the city is divided into five boroughs, Manhattan, Bronx, Brooklyn, Queens, and Richmond. Each of these boroughs has a president who has control over the streets in his borough, who has power to appoint and dismiss a commissioner of public works, who may discharge all of the administrative powers of the president of the borough relating to streets, sewers, public buildings, and supplies. The charter provides for no separate department of public works, but the administrative officers under the jurisdiction of the commissioner are commonly referred to as the department of public works. This department is divided into several bureaus, the most important of which is the bureau of highways. The chief engineer who heads this bureau, is appointed by the borough president, and the bureau is provided with the necessary engineering, inspecting, and clerical forces. This bureau has charge of existing pavements, the construction of new ones and the removal of obstructions and encumbrances from off the streets.

The city is also divided for local purposes into twenty-five districts in each of which is a body, composed of the aldermen of the district and the borough president acting as president. Every resolution that this board passes must receive the approval of the borough president. Among the powers of these boards are those of initiating proceedings to open, close, widen, extend, and pave the streets in their districts.

The borough of Manhattan presents greater difficulties in regard to the streets than any of the other boroughs, because of its immense population—an average density of 182.10, and a maximum density of 1103.10 to the acre[9]—the high value of land, the great number of self propelled vehicles, both for pleasure and business, and the vast volume of traffic in the business districts. The difficulties involved in caring for the streets of Manhattan are best seen in the work accomplished in the last three years.

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[9] *Report Department of Street Cleaning*. 1911, p. 6.

In this borough are 460 miles of streets, all of which are paved except about 17 miles in the northern part of the island, in the section built up since the opening of the subway.[10]

When the present administration came into power the complaints against the conditions of the streets were loud and numerous, particularly with regard to the sheet asphalt pavements. Not only was the surface of these pavements in bad condition, but the foundations were defective. There were more miles of this type of pavement than any other and as they formed the main thoroughfares of the city, the breaks, hollows, and uneven surfaces were painfully apparent. At the time of the construction of these pavements loads were much lighter and there were few if any self-propelled vehicles, consequently there was not the imperative need for extra firm foundations. The increased weight of the present day vehicle, however, and the greater loads that they carry have made stable foundations more necessary than formerly. The tendency of self-propelled vehicles to slip, causing a scraping action which scoops out the pavement under the drive wheel requires also a much more durable surface. This is especially so when chains are used.

One of the greatest difficulties that the present bureau of highways met with was the fact that the former administrations had kept no accurate statistics as to the age and condition of the streets. When this data was finally collected the results were astounding. It is a well established fact in engineering that good pavements are impossible without solid foundations. The statistics, however, revealed the fact that up to June, 1911, there were 190 miles of 30-foot roadway laid upon the existing old stone roads as foundations. Of this pavement ten miles were more than twenty years old and over 60 miles were over fifteen years old. When it is considered that the average life of a pavement in New York City is only about twelve years and in the very busy sections much less, the reasons for the bad condition of the streets becomes evident. For some unaccountable reason this faulty method of construction was continued even after the time when the different types of vehicles and the greater loads made sound foundations essential. In 1903, 30 miles of this pavement with poor foundations were laid in one year, and it was not until 1906 that the practice of laying sound concrete foundations became general throughout the borough.

Because of the flimsy construction and the old age of the pavements the cost of up-keep was enormous. It soon became evident that the greater part of the pavement would have to be renewed. Up to 1910 the annual appropriation for paving the streets had been about $1,000,000. During the first year of the new administration this sum could not be increased. But in 1911, thanks to the efforts of President McAneney, the sum was raised to $1,400,000 and in 1912 it was again raised to $3,500,000. As a result of this expenditure 50 miles of streets were laid in 1912. This mileage added to the other work done in the last three years amounts to a 190 miles, or nearly a quarter of the entire length of the pavement in the borough. The different types of pavement laid are as follows:

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[10] Special report for writer furnished by E. V. Frothingham, commissioner of public works gives most of the facts regarding Manhattan.

	Miles
Sheet asphalt	53
Granite	30
Wooden block	14
Asphalt block	12

The mileage of the different types of pavement at the beginning of 1910 and the beginning of 1912 are given below. They indicate quite clearly the changes in policy regarding the applicability of various materials for certain types of streets.

	January 1, 1910 *Miles*	*January 1, 1913* *Miles*
Sheet asphalt	259	246
Granite and all other materials	117	113
Asphalt block	48	54
Wooden block	11	25
Macadam	5	5
Total	440	443

This table shows a decrease of 13 miles in sheet asphalt and 4 miles in stone pavements, and an increase of 14 miles of wooden block and 6 miles of asphalt block. E. V. Frothingham, the commissioner of public works, gives the following reasons for the changes:

The increase of the wooden block represents the opinion of the department that this material is well fitted to certain types of streets where for any reason it is highly desirable that there shall be little noise and also where the traffic is heavy and the grade is not over 1½ per cent.

The experience of other cities with the wooden block would seem to confirm the statement made by Mr. Frothingham. Minneapolis has not only found the wooden block satisfactory for this type of street, but believes it is the best and cheapest material for nearly all of its streets. The success of the Australian hard wood block pavements in Sydney has been rather remarkable. Queen Street, which has an estimated daily traffic of 25,000 tons, was thus paved. The wooden blocks after eight years in the streets, showed a wear of only one-sixteenth of an inch and seemed in other respects to be nearly as good as when laid. The original cost was only $3.05 per square yard and the annual cost of maintenance was only 2 cents per square yard. Whether the wooden blocks will stand the immense traffic of Broadway or Fifth Avenue remains to be seen after thorough experiment.

Some little objection is raised against the wooden block because of its odor and stickiness in warm weather and also because of the difficulty of keeping it clean. As the blocks become worn dust collects in the broken fibers and is very hard to dislodge.

The increase in the amount of asphalt block used was against the judgment of the department. It was due to the fact that the present administration had inherited quite a few contracts from the former administration, and also that the new contracts in the upper end of the island were determined upon by the local boards upon the petition of the property owners. All of these contracts called for the use of asphalt block. As far as the department is itself concerned, it has almost entirely discontinued the use of this material with the exception of a few streets where the grade is great and where quiet is imperative.

Whether the local boards should have power to decide on the kind of pavement in a certain locality is one of those political questions on which people will continue to disagree. It seems reasonable to suppose, however, that the commissioner of public works would have much better data on which to base his determination that the local board, and so should be given the entire power to say what type of pavement should be laid.

The decrease in the mileage of the sheet asphalt, as shown by the above table, is because wooden and stone block have been laid in its place on streets where it had been laid by former administrations with little or no reference to the kind of traffic it was to bear.

Sheet asphalt seems to be an almost ideal pavement in the residential sections where traffic is light and quiet is desirable. One desirable feature about asphalt in such sections is that it is very clean in itself and is also easily cleaned. In crowded neighborhoods where the children must play on the streets this feature makes it highly desirable.

The slight loss of the amount of stone block is explained by the fact that sheet asphalt has been substituted for it in the residential sections.

It is needless to discuss all of the factors that enter into the determination of the kind of material to be used on any given street. Some of the things that must be taken into consideration, however, are the original cost, durability, ease of repair, ease of cleaning and freedom from slipperiness. Noiselessness, freedom from odor or stickiness, and slight radiation of heat are some of the more important factors to be considered in residential streets.

The present administration is making some very interesting experiments, testing the stability and cost of different types of pavement put under the same traffic conditions. On Broadway, between fifty-ninth Street and Seventy-eighth Street, wooden blocks are laid to test in comparison with a strip of sheet asphalt laid on the same street between Seventy-eighth Street and Ninety-second Street. As these two strips of pavement have nearly identical traffic conditions a fair test of the relative value of the two materials can be obtained. On Second Avenue strips of many different materials of about two blocks each are being laid to test the value of different materials. These different types are: two different types of asphalt block, two different types of sheet asphalt, rock asphalt, rock asphalt block, twelve different types of wooden block, granite block, and Medina sand stone. Such a test will be of great value in determining upon the future types of pavements.

The pavements were so old and in such bad condition at the time the McAneny administration began its work that the expense of up-keep was enormous. The repaving work has been especially directed to these poor pavements with the result that at the present time the cost of maintenance has been considerably lessened.

There are two main classes of maintenance work. The maintenance and repair of the stone work is done by departmental labor. The repair work of the sheet asphalt and asphalt block, in so far as it is not under the guarantee of the contractors who laid it, is done by contract, after public advertisement. Nearly all of the wooden block pavements in the borough are of such recent construction as to be still under the guarantee of the contractors doing the work.

An experienced engineer having charge of the stone work has very much reduced the expenses of repair work. This has been accomplished by eliminating men who were not necessary and demanding a high grade of work from those employed. In former administrations the pay roll for stone work had often been very heavily padded. For instance, in 1909 the pay roll for this kind of work was in round figures $480,000 and only 206,000 square yards were repaired. The total cost for that year, including material, was $500,000. In 1912, by the efficient management of a competent engineer, the department repaired 325,000 square yards, or an increase of 119,000 square yards over the former year. The pay roll was only $240,000, or a decrease of nearly 50 per cent. The total cost of this year, including the extra material needed for the 119,000 extra yards done, was only $300,000. As there was an increase of nearly 60 per cent in the amount of work done and yet a decrease of nearly 50 per cent in the total cost the figures speak for themselves.

Much has been done to improve the work of repairing the sheet asphalt and the asphalt block pavements. The cost here can not be controlled in the same way as in the case of the stone pavements because the city seems to be in the hands of a few asphalt companies having a monopoly and whose prices show every indication of a perfect understanding between themselves. The prices of these companies have arisen very rapidly as efforts have been made to better inspection and secure compliance with contract specifications. The prices during 1910 were very low for maintenance work, ranging from 82 cents per square yard to as low as 77 cents per yard. During 1911, the prices steadily increased, varying from 97 cents to $1.12 per square yard, and in 1912 reached the maximum price of $1.75 per square yard.

The amount of yardage and its cost for four different years will show in a rather interesting way some of the results attained by inspection and the consequent elimination of unnecessary yardage which had been formerly laid in the interest of the asphalt companies. This report will also show how the new pavement lessens the amount of repair work.

YEAR	SQUARE YARDS OF ROADWAY DONE	COST
1909	244,000	$285,000
1910	345,000	409,000
1911	478,000	686,000
1912	363,000	575,000

As a result of all the different elements combined the total repair work done in 1912 was at the average cost of 13 cents per square yard for pavements under maintenance as compared to 17 cents per square yard in 1911.

It is evident from the rapidly increasing price of the repair work done by the asphalt companies that the city has been badly hampered in its work of repairing the streets. Appropriations have been secured for a city asphalt plant, plans have been drawn up and the contracts for construction have been awarded. If all goes well, the plant will be in operation before the close of the present year.

Experience has demonstrated that there is no economy in repairing the streets after they get in rather bad condition. It is much better and cheaper in the long run to repave entirely. Old worn out streets are not only a heavy source of expenditure to the highways department but also greatly increase the cost of keeping the streets clean. In fact the street cleaning department is so much dependent for its efficiency on the condition of the streets that some have advocated placing them both under one head. In the boroughs of Queens and Richmond the commissioner of public works has charge of both departments and thus is able to have these two departments work in harmony with each other.

The proper grade of materials used and the manner in which they are laid is one of the most essential elements in keeping the streets in good shape. The proper materials of course can only be determined by comparing different materials under the same conditions. The specifications for different kinds of material have been very carefully revised in New York to meet what are now considered the essential requirements. Every wooden block must have so many rings to the inch, as it has been found that the quick growth rots much faster than the slower growth. The specifications for the preparation of the creosoted wooden blocks are very strict regarding the amount of creosote to the cubic foot, the temperature of ignition and the percentage of volability.

The granite blocks are now cut much smoother than formerly and the joints between them are consequently much smaller. Such pavements are well suited for automobiles and at the same time are much less noisy under steel-tired wagons with heavy loads. Canal Street and Hudson Street amply demonstrate the advantages of this type of block.

Most of the causes of failure in the sheet asphalt can be overcome by the proper kind of inspection. The greatest causes of failure are due to defective foundations, having the surface too soft, the leakage of illuminating gas, and patches where the streets have been torn up for water, gas or sewer connections. In the Borough of Richmond the bureau of highways itself replaces the pavement thus torn up and charges the expense up to the company doing the work. In this way it makes certain that the new patch is laid of the proper material, at the right time and in the proper manner.

One of the features of the present administration that has attracted general attention has been the removal of the sidewalk encroachments and the widening of the streets and sidewalks.

Prior to the present administration some work was begun on Fifth Avenue. In 1911 the campaign was fairly started beginning with some important crosstown streets—Forty-Second, Thirty-Fourth, and Twenty-Third Streets. During the past year the work has been continued with splendid results. The chief object to be accomplished was to get back for public use the space that had been appropriated by private individuals with, or without a revocable license from the city. In every case the property owner was forced to move the encroachments from the street at his own expense. In some instances the entire front of very costly buildings had to be taken off. In one case it will cost a big skyscraper $25,000 to comply with the rules. At the present time the courts are deciding whether or not the Singer Building will have to change its front.

This work has made it possible to gain from 6½ to 7½ feet on each side of the street without in any way decreasing the sidewalk space. In other sections the sidewalks and the streets have both been widened. The widening of Fifth Avenue, Forty-Second Street, Twenty-Third Street, Fourteenth Street and Second Avenue has made possible, despite the fact that a double car line is operated upon them, abundant room for a line of both standing and moving vehicles, on each side of the street between the car track and the curb. The amount of land thus returned to the city, without a cent of expense, is equal to 77,000 square yards, or a plot of land fourteen times as large as the sight of the old Equitable Building. The area thus restored to the city would equal a strip of land 13 miles long and 10 feet wide.

By a new rule adopted January 1, 1911, and enforced through the bureau of buildings, encroachments of any kind, with trifling exceptions, are forbidden. This rule is regarded as proper by all interested in the beauty and welfare of the city, and if lived up to will prevent the further development of congested conditions.

The removal of encroachments will be continued throughout the present year and although the streets affected have not been as yet fully determined upon, the progress will probably include Sixth Avenue, the Bowery, a portion of Seventh Avenue, and a considerable number of streets in the lower part of the city where the sidewalk congestion is great.

Another feature that has made the streets better and more sightly has been the removal of abandoned car tracks. In most instances where the city has had the power, these car tracks have been removed. There are still tracks which serve no practical purpose but because of the franchises the city is unable to touch them. A very conspicuous instance of the removal of tracks is found on Fulton Street, one of the most important crosstown streets. On this street for years a double line of car track, extending the full length of the street, had been an eyesore and source of danger. In connection with the repaving of this street the track was entirely removed and a fine stone pavement extending from sidewalk to sidewalk and from one river to the other makes this street both safe and good to look upon.

Other cities may well take a lesson from New York and refuse franchises for street car tracks unless there is every likelihood that they will be used to good purpose. A little forethought and good regulations regarding encroachments will not only save the city the use of all its street room but will also save property owners much trouble in the end.

The problems confronting the Borough of Queens are very different in their nature from those of Manhattan. This borough, which includes a number of fine summer resorts, is about 14 miles wide and 16 miles long. It has an area equal to about 40 per cent of the entire area of Greater New York, but has a population of only 322,191, stretched along the water front and the main thoroughfares. Large tracts in the center of the island are entirely undeveloped.[11]

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[11] From an address given before the road builders by G. Howland Leavitt, superintendent of highways, Borough of Queens, city of New York.

When Queens County was made part of New York City in 1898 the county had 450 miles of water-bound macadam roads. This roadway, because of insufficient provisions for maintenance and because of neglect, had fallen into bad condition. As a result the city found last year that it was necessary to repave a great portion of it.

The necessary appropriation presented some difficulties. The city assumes the responsibility of keeping in proper condition the streets that were once paved and paid for by assessment. Because of the urgent need of main thoroughfares connecting the different parts of the city, this work was finally authorized by the board of estimate and apportionment. Fifteen per cent of the expense was to be borne by the county and 85 per cent by the city.

The old roadways had good foundations and so it was determined to use them as far as possible. The nature of the traffic, about 75 per cent automobiles, the kind of construction then in place, the first cost and the cost of up-keep were some of the factors to be taken into consideration.

It appeared upon first view that a bitulithic carpet placed upon the old macadam road would be inexpensive and would meet all requirements. It had been found by experience, however, that because of the kind of traffic, a light flush coat of bitumen and stone would have to be put on the streets yearly at a cost of from 10 to 15 cents per square yard. This annual cost added to the first cost of the coating would equal about $1.25 per yard for a five-year period and would exceed the cost of a bitulithic concrete on properly constructed foundations. It was decided to use the concrete. The low bids for the new work, averaging $1.11 with a five year guarantee amply demonstrated the correctness of the position taken. By letting the work to different companies and in fifty separate contracts and by maintaining the proper force of engineers and inspectors to see that the work progressed, 102 miles of pavement were laid in a period of a little over four months. This work was done at a cost of $1,887,820.

The Borough of Richmond has been making some real steps in the solution of its street and street cleaning work under the presidency of George Cromwell and his efficient commissioner of public works, Louis L. Tribus and J. T. Fetherston, the superintendent of street cleaning. This borough has been fortunate in having practically the same administrative heads of departments for the last ten years and so has been able to carry on well thought-out policies. The problems connected with this borough are by no means as complicated as those of Manhattan, but the present method of attacking them seems to be correct and applicable to much larger undertakings.[12]

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[12] Report of Borough President of Richmond to board of estimate and apportionment, *Suggestions to the Board of Estimate and Apportionment by the President of the Borough of Richmond*, 1912.

Mr. Cromwell is making a successful attempt to introduce lump sum appropriations for the different departments in the borough instead of the highly segregated budget. In a letter to the board of estimate and apportionment, he summarizes his plans as follows:

> 1. Lump sum departmental or office appropriations shall be authorized when founded upon unit cost data and work requirements.
> 2. In any department or office where such cost data are available, several salary grades for the same class of work shall be established by the board of estimate and apportionment, so that the head of a department or office may increase or decrease wages within specified limits, basing such action upon predetermined standards of work and efficiency records.
> 3. Each head of a department or office in which fundamental cost data are available shall have direct responsibility in the expenditure of appropriations, the result to be checked by some independent authority such as the mayor, acting through the commissioners of account or the comptroller.[13]

Such a system would seem to be much more conducive to efficiency than the old segregated budget system. Each head of a department would in this way be able to conduct his department as a business enterprise. He could control his men, rewarding those who did good work and reducing the pay of those whose work was not up to the standard. Such a system, if carefully worked out, gives a scientific basis for determining the amount of appropriation instead of the system, all too general at the present time, of basing the appropriation for the present year upon the amount given during the preceding year. With such a system however, it would be necessary to work out a plan whereby every factor of cost was taken into consideration.

A good way to get these different factors is to establish first a unit basis, for instance the square yard. Then determine all of the factors making up the total cost per square yard, labor, material, haulage, etc. The unit cost will be the sum of all these factors. By the monthly cost sheet, as made up in the office, the engineer can at once see the factor that is causing the excessive cost, and so can easily determine whether this extra cost in justified. For instance, supposing the labor per square yard is 20 per cent greater in section A than in section B. This cost is immediately noticed by the engineer and he can at once determine whether the difficulties in section A make this extra cost necessary. If they do not he can immediately find some way of bettering the conditions.

Supposing, on the other hand, that in section B the monthly report showed a lower figure of cost in the ton mile haul. The engineer could either better the conditions in A or else find out exactly what made the cost in that section greater.

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[13] *Suggestions to the Board of Estimate and Apportionment by the President of the Borough of Richmond,* 1912, p. 3.

This is a very inadequate statement of the plan but may show in a measure how such a plan would work. It is not different in principle from the cost price of large manufacturing concerns.

It is to be hoped that the plans suggested by Mr. Cromwell will be given a fair trial and that they will in a large measure make possible a more scientific budget.

CINCINNATI'S TRACTION PROBLEMS

BY ELLIOTT HUNT PENDLETON[1]

Cincinnati

HENRY T. HUNT was elected mayor of Cincinnati in November, 1911, and assumed office January 1,1912. Before entering upon his duties Cincinnati's new chief executive formulated a program of objects to be accomplished during the two-year term for which he had been chosen. Improvement of the city's street railway service and the preparation of plans for securing rapid transit facilities—urban as well as interurban—formed a part of his constructive program.

The benefits that would result from better transportation facilities were fully appreciated by Mayor Hunt. In his judgment such facilities were needed not merely for the purpose of promoting the growth and material prosperity of the city, but in order to render possible the accomplishment of much more important ends, namely, the solution of Cincinnati's serious housing problem and a saving in the cost of living to all the inhabitants of the city.

Any one who has visited Cincinnati will recall that most of its factories and business establishments are located in the lower part of the city, and that this section is bounded on the south by the Ohio River and on the north, east and west, by steep hills. The population in this lower and oldest part of Cincinnati is very dense, as a large proportion of the factory workers, and nearly all of the city's poor, live in houses and tenements that were built in this section a half a century or more ago. That quick and cheap transportation to the beautiful and encircling hills would tend greatly to relieve the congestion that now prevails in this central portion of the city is quite apparent. It is equally clear that convenient and rapid means for reaching houses built upon the upper levels of the city would contribute in no small degree to the health, comfort and happiness, of the entire community. The conservation of health, morals, comfort and happiness, was what led Mayor Hunt into the fight that he has conducted with such vigor to secure better transportation facilities for the people of Cincinnati.

In order to understand the many problems connected with the traction campaign which Cincinnati's courageous young mayor has been carrying on, some knowledge concerning the development of Cincinnati's street railway facilities into the system that is in operation today is essential.

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[1] Mr. Pendleton for many years has been a conspicuous leader in Cincinnati for higher standards of municipal life and conduct. He has been identified with the various independent movements and was in the forefront of the campaign for Mayor Hunt's election. He has been editor and publisher of *The Citizens' Bulletin* of Cincinnati, and since 1903 has been a member of the council of the National Municipal League. Harvard University in June, 1913, conferred upon him the degree of master of arts as a recognition of his civic work.

The first street railroads in Cincinnati were authorized by an ordinance passed July 1, 1859. This provided that cars with "all modern improvements" were to be run "as often as the public convenience might require," under the direction and regulation of the city council. Provision was also made for the sale of tickets in packages of twenty-five and that no fare should exceed 5 cents. Another provision of this ancient piece of municipal legislation was that the street railway companies were required to purchase any competing omnibus lines at a price to be ascertained by arbitration. The result of this exaction drove most of the original companies into bankruptcy.

A comparison of the rate of fare charged by the Cincinnati Traction Company today with the charges imposed by Cincinnati's old omnibus companies furnishes a forcible illustration of how great a reduction in the cost of transportation has been effected since the introduction of the street railway. The fares collected by the old omnibus lines ranged from 5 to 25 cents, and no one of their routes extended more than half the distance which passengers may ride for a nickel today.

The city council on July 13, 1859, determined upon six street car routes, and on the same day franchises to operate cars over these lines were granted to six different companies. These routes began at some fairly central point and extended but a short distance into the various sections of the lower part of the city. One of these grants was made to the Cincinnati Street Railway Company, and the first street car in the city was run by this company, September 14, 1859. After the six original routes had been constructed, other short and independent lines were established in rapid succession and without regard to any general system. These short and independent routes finally numbered twenty-five. Extensions of old routes were also granted, from time to time, and authority to collect higher fares than 5 cents was then given.

For the purpose of saving time consumed in ascending, in the horse drawn cars of that day, the very steep hill that led to the residential district known as Mt. Auburn, there was constructed in 1872, an inclined plane from the lower level of the city to the top of the hill. This elevator was looked upon as an experiment and was not expected by many to prove a success. It became quite popular, however, owing to the great saving of time which it effected; and as extra fares were collected from those who used it, the venture proved a financial success. Five other inclined planes were subsequently constructed to the tops of the other hills that surround Cincinnati.

When Cincinnati's inclined planes were first built, passengers were required to transfer to and from the street cars at both the foot and top of the hills. Within a short time thereafter, however, large trucks were constructed upon which to run the cars and lift them up, thus rendering the removal of passengers at the foot and top of the hills unnecessary. Serious accidents occurred on some of these inclined planes and proved very costly to the companies. A few of these elevators have been abandoned, but several of them are still operated as they afford the only practical means of furnishing certain sections of the city with street railway service.

The problem of climbing Cincinnati's hills led later to the construction of cable roads. Motive power of this character was adopted by three different companies. At very large expense cable roads were constructed to several of the city's principal residential sections on the hilltops. Within a few years, however, the demands for better service necessitated their abandonment and the substitution of electric motive power. These changes in construction and equipment made heavy drains upon the funds of the various companies. The result was that nearly all of the original companies either failed or went out of business. All of these lines were taken over and operated by the Cincinnati Street Railway Company.

In the early part of 1896 there were but four traction companies operating in Cincinnati. These companies were entirely independent of each other and no transfer privileges were granted. The rates of fare from outlying districts to the central part of the city varied from 5 cents to 15 cents. Passengers desiring to reach some point on the opposite side of the city were required to pay an additional fare. Under such conditions it is but natural that the people of Cincinnati became thoroughly dissatisfied with the existing system and that lower fares and universal transfers were vigorously demanded. This agitation resulted in the passage of a law—known as the Rogers law—permitting the consolidation of various lines in any Ohio municipality. The Rogers law authorized the board of administration, or council of any city, to grant to the consolidated company a fifty-year franchise, at a rate of fare not exceeding 5 cents for the first twenty years of the term. At the end of that period a readjustment of the rate of fare for the ensuring fifteen years was to be made, when the rate of fare was again to be revised for the last fifteen years of the fifty-year grant.

Shortly after the passage of the Rogers law a merger of the three other companies with the Cincinnati Street Railway Company was effected. A contract was then entered into between the city and that company, in which there was granted to it a right or franchise to operate cars, upon certain terms and conditions, in and upon designated streets, for a term of fifty years. This contract provided that cars should be run in such numbers and as frequently as the public convenience might require, and at a rate of fare not exceeding 5 cents during the first twenty years of the term. Provision was also made that transfers should be granted, without extra charge, to passengers desiring to be conveyed, in the same general direction, from one part to any other part of the city. It was also provided that readjustments of the rate of fare, and of practically all of the other terms of the contract, should be made at the end of twenty years, and at the expiration of thirty-five years, from the beginning of the fifty-year grant. For the privilege of using the streets, the company was required to pay to the city, annually, 5 per cent of its gross receipts. Car license fees were also to be collected. The payment of car license fees was subsequently waived, in consideration of the company's agreement to pay to the city, annually, 6 per cent of its gross receipts. This payment amounted, in 1912, to about $315,000.

At the time of its enactment and, in fact, ever since the passage of the Rogers law, there has been great misunderstanding regarding its various provisions. It was at first believed by the citizens generally that by the contract entered into with the traction company the people of Cincinnati would be required to pay 5 cent fares throughout the entire term of the fifty-year grant. The provisions of the law which provided for revisions of the rate of fare at stated periods, and which in many other ways safeguarded the interests of the public, were not understood by the great body of the citizenship. For these reasons indignation over the enactment of the law rose to a high pitch. Charges of bribery in connection with the passage of the measure were freely made. No indictments, however, resulted. The feeling against Senator Foraker, who was then acting as counsel for the street railway company, was very bitter, as it was generally believed that it was through his influence with the general assembly—the same body that had just chosen him to be one of Ohio's representatives in the United States senate—that the passage of the law had been brought about.

The Rogers law was repealed by the next general assembly and Cincinnati was the only city that availed itself of the provisions of the measure during the period that it was in force. The constitutionality of the act was attacked, but the law was declared valid by the supreme court of the state, and street railway service has been furnished to the people of Cincinnati, during the past seventeen years, under the contract entered into in 1896 in pursuance of the provisions of the Rogers law.

In considering Cincinnati's complicated traction controversy, the fact should be borne in mind that at the time the new fifty-year franchise was granted to the Cincinnati Street Railway Company, in 1896, the average unexpired term of the franchises then held by the company was about seventeen years.

In 1901 the Cincinnati Street Railway Company leased its entire property to the Cincinnati Traction Company, a new company that had been organized for the purpose of operating the entire street railway system. Under the terms of this lease the operating company agreed to pay a rental amounting to 5 per cent at first, but advancing gradually to 6 per cent, on the outstanding capital stock of the lessor company. The 6 per cent rate was reached in 1905. The dividends that had been previously declared by the lessor company had never exceed 5 per cent, but in accordance with the terms of the new lease its stockholders have enjoyed dividends at the rate of 6 per cent since 1905.

The story of this lease transaction is as follows: Owing to the constant demands of the public for improved service and the consequent increasing difficulty experienced by the Cincinnati Street Railway Company in earning 5 per cent on its capital stock, its managers grew tired of the business and took up the matter of leasing the company's entire system. The proposition was submitted to the Widener-Elkins syndicate, of Philadelphia. Prior to this solicitation, the gentlemen composing this syndicate had entertained no thought of making any investment in Cincinnati traction property. They consented to consider the proposition, however, and entered upon an investigation of the Cincinnati traction system with but little idea of consummating any lease of the property. The result of the investigation, however, disclosed that the methods of operation pursued by the old company were antiquated, and that by the introduction of up-to-date and efficient management, savings could be effected and the property be made to pay. Subsequent negotiations resulted in the lease above referred to. One of the provisions of this lease was that the Cincinnati Traction Company should expend at least $2,000,000 in improvements.

The Cincinnati Traction Company was organized with a capital stock of only $2,000,000, but a holding company, called the Ohio Traction Company, was subsequently formed, capitalized at $17,000,000; $8,500,000 of this was represented by preferred stock and an equal amount by common stock. This company sold its preferred stock at about $85 a share, including a bonus of an equal amount of common stock. The company was also bonded for $2,500,000. These bonds were sold for very nearly par. The funds realized from both stock and bonds went into betterments of the system, with the exception of $1,000,000 that was used to construct an office building on one of the city's most prominent corners and about $283,000 that was invested in a car building company and in the purchase of the Cincinnati zoölogical garden. As the Ohio Traction Company took over the entire $2,000,000 capital stock of the Cincinnati Traction Company, the Ohio Traction Company is virtually the lessee company.

The outstanding capital stock of the lessor company—the Cincinnati Street Railway Company—is $18,738,950 and it is upon this amount that the lessee company is obligated to pay 6 per cent interest annually. By adding to this capitalization of the lessor company the sum of $9,727,000 expended in betterment to the system by the lessee company, a total present valuation of $28,465,950 is produced.

As there was practically no public protest against the consummation of the lease to the Cincinnati Traction Company the transaction was promptly approved by the city council.

Notwithstanding the extensive betterments made by the lessee company there were still many complaints on the part of citizens regarding the service rendered. Most of these complaints were directed against the overcrowding of the cars during the rush hours. The company's answer to these complaints was that it was impossible to run more cars over the tracks in the congested district during such periods. This was, to a very great extent, true. What was needed was a new routing of the lines in the congested districts. No attempt to apply this remedy however had ever been made by any city administration during the years that Boss Cox dominated every department of the government of Cincinnati.

When Mayor Hunt assumed office he devoted his energies at once to securing improved street railway service. In order to deal with the problem intelligently he recommended the employment of a traction expert to make a careful survey of conditions and to report upon a comprehensive system of rerouting and also as to the number of cars that should be run over each line, in order to produce adequate and satisfactory service. Council made an appropriation for the purpose and R. W. Harris, of Milwaukee, considered the best expert in the country for the task, was employed to investigate and report as to what should be done. Mr. Harris with a large corps of assistants spent several months studying the situation and, based upon some six million observations relative to existing conditions, made a comprehensive report as to rerouting and as to the number of additional cars needed.

The report he submitted recommended the addition of sixty-five new cars at once. The traction company not only consented to comply with this recommendation, but ordered seventy-five additional cars. These new cars, of the most improved type, have now been in operation for several months. The traction company also expressed its willingness to reroute its lines as soon as the council should pass the necessary rerouting ordinance. When Mr. Harris' rerouting plan came before the council, however, many who owned property along the old lines began to protest against the changes therein proposed. After months of public discussion, and with but few changes in the plan recommended, the rerouting ordinance was finally passed and the traction company is now preparing to install the new system at the earliest possible date.

During this rerouting discussion, Mayor Hunt realized more than ever that Cincinnati was greatly in need of a rapid transit urban, as well as interurban, service. The interurban service which Cincinnati now has is unsatisfactory, because all interurban cars must use the same tracks, within the limits of the city, as are used by the cars of the local traction system. On this account, not only has the problem of congestion been made more difficult, but much more time than should be consumed is required for the transportation of interurban passengers to the heart of the city.

To deal intelligently with the city's rapid transit problem Mayor Hunt appointed a rapid transit commission. The members of this commission raised a fund and employed Bion J. Arnold, of Chicago, a traction engineer of national reputation, to make a survey and to recommend the best plan Cincinnati could adopt to secure adequate rapid transit service. Mr. Arnold, after devoting several months to the study of the local situation, reported his conclusions. He advocated the construction of a loop encircling the city's hills, parts of which were to be built underground and parts on the surface and overhead. The report was considered by civic and business organizations and met with general approval; but Mr. Arnold's estimate that the project would cost about $7,000,000 seemed to be a stumbling block to many. In order to meet the objections relative to cost which had been raised, Mayor Hunt entered into negotiations with the traction company for the purpose of inducing it to agree, in the event of the construction of the proposed rapid transit loop by the city, to lease and operate the system, and to pay as rental for the property an amount sufficient to pay interest and sinking fund upon the cost of the improvement. The mayor's proposition also provided that the company should grant as many transfers to and from its existing lines as might be necessary to enable passengers to ride from any one point to any other point, in the same general direction, within the limits of the city. In connection with and as a part of this new arrangement Mayor Hunt proposed to effect a resettlement with the traction company of its existing franchise by the substitution of an indeterminate franchise in place of its fifty-year grant, through an agreement as to the valuation of the system and the amount of interest thereon the company should be allowed to earn. Provisions relative to fares and regulation of service were also to be fully provided for in the new contract.

Mayor Hunt's negotiations with the traction company were progressing favorably when they were abruptly and seriously interfered with by the introduction of a bill in the general assembly providing for the revocation of the franchise of the Cincinnati Street Railway Company. This drastic measure was fathered by Herbert S. Bigelow, a member from Hamilton County, in which Cincinnati is located. Mr. Bigelow is a Democrat of the ultra radical type, and as municipal ownership as well as municipal operation of all city utilities formed a part of his platform, he had for years been waging a bitter war against the Cincinnati Traction Company. Through the passage of his revocation bill Mr. Bigelow hoped to bring about the acquisition by the city of the street railway system at a figure far below that which the city would otherwise undoubtedly have to pay for the property.

The right of the general assembly to revoke the franchise granted by the city to the street railway company was based by Mr. Bigelow on article 1, section 2, of the constitution of Ohio, which reads as follows: "No special privileges or immunities shall ever be granted that may not be altered, revoked or repealed by the general assembly."

In the opinion of Mayor Hunt and of many other lawyers of the Hamilton County bar, the clause of the constitution quoted relates to privileges and immunities granted by the state in articles of incorporation and was introduced by the framers of the constitution of 1851 for the purpose of making it perfectly clear that charters might be altered, amended or repealed, and to prevent their being construed to be contracts and, therefore, irrepealable, in accordance with the doctrine laid down by the supreme court of the United States in the Dartmouth College case. In the opinion of many able lawyers the clause in question was neither intended, nor does it apply, to the right which a city has granted to a company to run cars over some of its streets, and which formed an essential part of the contract entered into by the company with the municipality to furnish transportation to the inhabitants thereof, upon specified terms and conditions.

During the entire sixty-two years since the adoption of the clause of the Ohio constitution under consideration and prior to the introduction of Mr. Bigelow's bill, there had never been the least suggestion that the provision might be interpreted in the manner that Mr. Bigelow claims it should be construed. In this connection it is well to bear in mind that the constitution of Ohio, as well as the constitution of the United States, provides that no laws shall be passed impairing the obligation of contracts.

In the case of the *Omaha Water Company vs. The City of Omaha*,[2] the court held as follows:

> Neither the power of a municipality to contract with a third party for the construction and operation of waterworks, street railways or other public utilities, nor the right of such a party under such a contract, constitutes a special privilege or immunity within the meaning of those terms in section 16, article 1, of the constitution of Nebraska which prohibits the legislature from "making any irrevocable grant of special privileges and immunities."

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[2] 147 Fed. Rep., page 1.

> The power to alter or repeal general laws under which corporations have been organized, reserved by section 1, article xiii, of the constitution of Nebraska, 1875, is limited by section 18, article i, of the same constitution, which forbids the passage of any law impairing the obligation of contracts, and it does not reserve to the legislature the power to destroy or impair the contract of third parties with such corporations.

The foregoing decision was practically affirmed by the supreme court of the United States by the denial of a writ of certiorari on December 23, 1907.[3]

Even if the clause in question were susceptible of the construction placed upon it by Mr. Bigelow, there is no doubt that a very large proportion of the citizens of Cincinnati are firmly of the opinion that the power of revocation should not be exercised by the general assembly, as such exercise would be unconscionable and unmoral. Such action they maintain would amount to the repudiation of a solemn obligation and the confiscation of private property. If the terms of the franchise have been violated by the street railway company, resort to an action of forfeiture is, in their opinion, the proper remedy. If the city deems it desirable to acquire the property and no satisfactory agreement of purchase can be arrived at, the institution of condemnation proceedings is, in their judgment, the only legal and just course to pursue. These are the views entertained by many of Cincinnati's most important and most influential civic and business organizations. By impassioned appeals, however, Mr. Bigelow was able to bring some of the labor organizations as well as a few other associations to the support of his revocation measure.

Notwithstanding the introduction of the Bigelow bill Mayor Hunt persisted in his efforts to reach an agreement with the traction company that would, in his judgment, give to the city of Cincinnati as good transportation facilities as are enjoyed by any American municipality. Under the terms of the settlement which was finally concluded, the valuation of the entire street railway system is to be arrived at in the following manner: The sum of $18,738,950—the amount of the capital stock of the lessor company—is to be allowed without further question. Without this concession no amicable settlement whatever could have been effected, as the lessee company was under obligation to pay 6 per cent interest upon this amount to the lessor company. The amount actually expended by the lessee company in betterments is to be ascertained by a board of appraisers and also allowed, but in no event can this amount exceed the sum of $9,716,286. Should this entire estimate be allowed, the total valuation of the property would be $28,455,236. In consideration of the city's agreement to permit the company to earn 6 per cent on the valuation finally fixed by the board of arbitrators, the street railway company has agreed to a surrender of its fifty-year franchise and the substitution therefor of an indeterminate grant. The city is to have the right to purchase the property at the end of any five-year period at the valuation fixed by the arbitrators. All matters relating to service are to regulated by the city. Although the cash fare is to remain 5 cents, the company is required to sell six tickets for a quarter. Universal transfers must be granted. The city is to build the rapid transit loop and the traction company is to lease and operate it and to pay a rental therefor which will meet the interest and sinking fund charges on the bonds issued to defray the cost of improvement. The rate of fare on the rapid transit loop is to be 5 cents including transfers to the surface cars of the entire system. Surplus profits in the operation of either the loop or surface cars are to be divided between the city and the traction company. Fares are to be revised every five years.

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[3] 207 U. S., 584.

Before this tentative agreement goes into effect, it will have to be ratified by a vote of the electors of Cincinnati. No date has yet been fixed for the submission of the question to the voters of the city.

When the proposed settlement between the city and the traction company was reached the general assembly was still in session and the fate of the Bigelow bill was still a matter of conjecture. The measure received a very large vote in the house, but died in the committee of the senate to which it had been referred.

Since the defeat of his revocation measure Mr. Bigelow has been more active than ever in his fight against the traction company. He has organized and is president of a municipal ownership league. By means of this league he hopes to be able to prevent a ratification at the polls of the tenative agreement arrived at between the administration and the traction company. If he accomplishes this end he will bend his efforts to bring about the acquisition by the city of the street railway system through condemnation proceedings. He proposes that the city shall not merely own, but also operate its traction lines.

Mr. Bigelow has rallied support to his plan mainly on account of his charge that the collection of a 5-cent fare is robbery, and by his emphatic assurances that under municipal ownership and operation the rate of fare in Cincinnati would not exceed 3 cents. The argument constantly advanced by Mr. Bigelow is that inasmuch as street railway transportation is furnished to the citizens of Cleveland at a 3-cent rate, there is no reason why the people of Cincinnati should not enjoy an equally low fare. The soundness of this contention is certainly open to serious question. By advocates of the traction settlement favored by Mayor Hunt, Mr. Bigelow's reasoning is regarded as absurd and ridiculous. They charge him with making promises impossible of fulfilment for the sole purpose of alluring ignorant voters to accomplish the defeat of the traction settlement plan recommended by the administration. Attention is called to the fact that Cincinnati is confronted by conditions that vary materially from those that prevail in the city of Cleveland. Cleveland is level, whereas Cincinnati is made up largely of hills, many of which are very steep. To mount these hills inclined planes which increase the cost of operation are essential. Cleveland has nothing of the sort to contend with. Heavier motors and more current are required to operate Cincinnati's cars. By reason of the steepness of the grades, accidents are much more likely to occur. The use of trailers is impossible. That these conditions tend materially to increase the cost of operating the system must be admitted. Then again Cleveland is a city of forty-seven square miles, whereas Cincinnati covers an area of seventy square miles. Under Cincinnati's universal transfer system passengers may ride from eighteen to twenty miles for 5 cents. The average haul in Cincinnati is undoubtedly much greater than in Cleveland. Another very important factor is that Cleveland has a population approximating 600,000, while Cincinnati's population is less than 400,000. During the decade between 1900 and 1910 the increase in Cleveland's population was about 47 per cent, whereas that of Cincinnati increased but 11.5 per cent during the same period. It certainly must be admitted that these widely different circumstances must be taken into consideration in any just determination of reasonable rates of fare. In the opinion of many who have made a careful study of the question, the six-for-a-quarter rate to which the Cincinnati Traction Company has agreed, is, under all the circumstances, a more reasonable charge than the 3-cent rate that now prevails in the city of Cleveland.

One of the grounds upon which Mr. Bigelow bases his vigorous opposition to Mayor Hunt's plan of settlement is the valuation of the traction system which has been tentatively agreed to. In his judgment this valuation is many millions higher than it should be. His estimate of the value of the entire property is but $14,000,000.

In order to test the accuracy of Mr. Bigelow's promise that under municipal ownership and operation the charge for transportation would not exceed 3 cents, let it be assumed that the city might acquire the entire street railway system without the expenditure of a dollar. The cost of operation, excluding taxes, for the year 1912, was about $2,700,000. To this must be added the taxes which the company was required to pay and which aggregated approximately $700,000. The total cost of operation last year was, therefore, $3,400,000. To this figure should be added at least $500,000 in order to provide for the payment of wages in accordance with the standard Mr. Bigelow deems but fair and just. The cost of operation would thereby be increased to $3,900,000. Better service—more cars, more employees, more power, more wear and tear—would require an additional annual outlay. During the year 1912 the company carried about 100,000,000 passengers. At a 3-cent fare a gross income of $3,000,000 would be produced. This calculation demonstrates that without any allowance whatsoever for better service and without any provision whatsoever for interest on capital invested or on the mere physical value of the property, the cost of operating the system, under Mr. Bigelow's plan, would result in an annual deficit of about $900,000.

Among the obstacles that have confronted Mayor Hunt in his relentless fight to secure better transportation facilities was the strike of the conductors and motormen of the traction company which occurred during the latter part of May and for which Mr. Bigelow was largely responsible. Fortunately the strike lasted for but a brief period. Through the efforts of Mayor Hunt and others, arbitration of all differences between the traction company and its employees was agreed to within ten days. The fact that Mr. Bigelow made no effort whatever to bring about the prompt and amicable settlement which was effected should be borne in mind. That the strike was so speedily terminated was undoubtedly a great disappointment to him.

At present writing a campaign for a new city charter is waging in Cincinnati. Within a few days the voters of the municipality will determine whether or not a new charter shall be formulated and to whom the task of drafting the instrument shall be entrusted. Fifteen charter commissioners are to be chosen. Two tickets have been nominated; one of them by Mr. Bigelow and which is known as the "Civic and Labor Ticket" and the other by the Chamber of Commerce, Business Men's Club, Federated Improvement Association, City Club, Taxpayers' Association and citizens generally, and known as the "Citizens' Ticket." Immediate municipal ownership and operation of all public utilities has been the principal appeal for support advanced by the candidates on the Bigelow ticket. The fifteen men who are opposing Mr. Bigelow's candidates believe that a new charter is needed and that the municipality should have power to acquire and operate all public utilities but are not in favor of immediate municipal ownership and operation. There is also a strong movement against making any change in Cincinnati's form of government at the present time.

Just how Cincinnati's traction problems are to be solved will depend largely upon the result of the approaching charter election.

THE STATUS OF LIQUOR-LICENSE LEGISLATION

BY JOHN KOREN[1]

Boston

THE bald truth is that, viewed as a whole, the liquor legislation of the United States invites bewilderment and despair rather than admiration and confidence. I am not referring to the state-wide prohibitive measures which are *sui generis* and stand chiefly for pledges unfulfilled because impossible. Nor is the question here primarily of local option laws in their various manifestations, but of legislation intended to regulate a traffic in liquor; and in respect to this conditions in the United States must be described as chaotic instead of well ordered. In other words, the sum total of our efforts to legislate concerning an exceedingly difficult social problem is unintelligent and therefore largely ineffective. How can it be otherwise so long as the laws aiming to regulate "an inherently dangerous traffic" proceed largely from unthinking agitation, careless or undirected experimentation, hasty piling of inconsequential statutes upon statutes and endlessly amending them in unessential details?

Perhaps most people are not aware of the true state of affairs. Others regard it complacently except when the legal machinery created for us shows too obvious signs of breaking down, and then are content to have some more tinkering done by incompetent hands. Whether we blame ignorance or indifference, the fact remains that what we are pleased to call systems of liquor legislation are, for the greater part, crude makeshifts that fail of their purpose and often prove a stumbling block in the way of good government. In proof of this, it almost suffices to state that there are nearly as many systems of dealing with the liquor traffic as there are license states, notwithstanding many points of similarity. Yet, given the same problem, which everywhere produces an abundant crop of the same perplexities, it is unthinkable that it can be met with equal success through regulative systems that differ in fundamental principles Even a superficial consideration of the chief characteristics of present-day liquor legislation makes this clear. Space permits reference to but a few of them.

The pivotal question in all regulation of the liquor traffic is that of the authority delegated to grant privileges to sell. In its simplest form it is a question of regulating use and stopping abuse. On all sides it is agreed that the traffic cannot safely be left to seek its own level. But in regard to the means by which it should be directed and supervised there appears to be a singular variety of opinion as expressed in current legislation. Indeed, its diversity is almost bewildering, as may be gathered from the following summary reference to the laws on this subject of some of the states.

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[1] Mr. Koren is secretary of the National Municipal League's committee on the liquor problem, and of the American section of the international committee for the scientific study of the drink problem. He was also the expert investigator for the committee of fifty, of which the Hon. Seth Low was chairman.

In a few instances the liquor traffic appears to be primarily an object of fiscal solicitude, although it may be hedged in to some extent by restrictive conditions under which the right to sell is granted, denied or canceled. Thus, New York has accepted the theory of a liquor tax law made operative through a state excise commissioner. It marks the culmination of a long series of disappointments with local licensing bodies and perhaps more the cupidity of the "up-state" people who wanted to get the license revenue for the State, hoping incidentally to make political gains out of the excise department.

Iowa can be said to dodge the whole issue because it takes refuge on a so-called mulct-law, which may be described as a device for imposing a money penalty, really amounting to a tax, upon a constitutionally outlawed traffic. Other states, exemplifying the idea that liquor laws are primarily for the purpose of taxation and not of regulation, are California, where the tax collector is the chief functionary in dealing with privileges to sell liquor, and Florida, with its state license issued by the county tax collector, but countersigned by the county judge. In the two last-mentioned states, however, restrictive measures are given a degree of recognition. The municipalities of California have a wide discretion in dealing locally with liquor selling.

Most of the states still hold to the principle that the chief object of liquor legislation is not to tax the traffic but to regulate it. That is, the license is regarded as a privilege to be granted, withheld or abrogated by specified authorities, usually upon conditions more or less circumstantially defined and intended to safeguard the interests of the community. The underlying theory seems simple, perhaps, but the efforts to work it out in practice have given rise to an astounding variety of legislation and much experimentation. The statutes enacted on the subject have been legion, and the end is not yet.

To the question under whose authority licenses to sell should be granted, hardly two states return precisely the same answer; and when it is asked further under what restrictions and upon what conditions the privilege may be allowed, the divergence becomes much more striking. Most of the laws defining licensing bodies rest upon old foundations, while others have wholly abandoned them and reach out for something new. There is not space to enumerate separately the chief statutory provisions in regard to licensing authorities and their duties. It must suffice to give some examples, with the briefest possible reference to the status of this matter in most of the license states.

Perhaps no commonwealth furnishes a more perfect example of confused conditions relative to licensing authorities than New Jersey. There licenses to sell liquor may be granted: (1) By the court of common pleas; (2) by a city council, common council, board of aldermen or other governing body; (3) by an excise board appointed by the court of common pleas; (4) by an excise board elected by a city council or other governing body; (5) by an excise board nominated by a mayor and confirmed by a city council; and (6) by an excise board chosen at a general election. It is held, moreover, that when a city adopts the commission form of government under the new law, all power to deal with liquor licenses becomes vested in the commissioners. The statutes from which these different licensing bodies derive their existence date as far back as 1838 and reach down to 1911. It can hardly be maintained that New Jersey attempted to meet half a dozen essentially different conditions within her borders by as many varieties of licensing authorities. They appear largely to be the results of accident rather than of a well-conceived plan. The restrictions to be placed upon licenses seem for the greater part to be of local invention. It is legislation *ad hoc.*

Investigators of the subject commonly regard it as fraught with special danger to give the licensing power into the hands of a locally elected government body. One generally finds in the practice a survival of old legislation which may or may not be bolstered up by many restrictions and conditions governing the actions of the licensing body. Among the states entrusting the delicate function of licensing the sale of liquor to some local government body, the following may be mentioned:

In Colorado, the county commissioners, city council and village board of trustees license within their respective domains. A state license is also required. Connecticut licenses are issued by the county commissioners upon endorsement of a certain number of electors. Remonstrance and hearings are provided for. Illinois has the same divisions of licensing authorities as Colorado. Indiana employs the county commissioners as licensing authorities, but under very elaborate rules and restrictions. The right of remonstrance is provided for in profuse detail. Louisiana makes parish juries and city councils the licensing bodies. Michigan allows township board and village and city councils to regulate the traffic, mostly under local ordinances. In Minnesota, the power is vested in county commissioners and village and municipal authorities under stringent conditions and requirements in regard to bonds, sureties, etc. The Montana licensers are the county commissioners and city councils. Nebraska authorizes the county commissioners to license the traffic, also the corporate authorities of cities and villages, except that in cities of the "Metropolitan" class and those having between 25,000 and 40,000 population this duty is performed by the board of fire and police commissioners. An application must be made on petition.

In Oregon, South Dakota, Utah, Washington, Wisconsin and Wyoming, the licensing power is vested in the local government body, except that for districts in Oregon outside of cities and towns it is given the county courts. In Rhode Island the local government body is also supreme in licensing affairs, but indirectly through license commissioners appointed by it, except in Providence where the board of police commissioners act as such. It should be noted that in cities under the commission form of government, the licensing power usually lies with the commissioners, but not invariably, as it may be vested in state officials.

Obviously, no licensing body is so likely to be swayed by political and bad trade influences as the ordinary local government board. For this statement there is too ample warrant. Yet it is hardly reflected in the legislation of some states, while others rely, as we have seen, upon fencing in what may be done or not done by all sorts of restrictions and give free play to the power of remonstrance.

Another group comprises states that, if I read the history of their laws correctly, have become less credulous about the efficacy of mere law, or have grown chastened by experience, for they have largely or altogether shorn the local government bodies of authority to license the traffic. In some cases a measure of home rule is preserved by the creation of locally chosen excise boards. The Massachusetts law, for instance, prescribes that in cities, except those having a licensing board created by special statute or under the provisions of a charter, there shall be a licensing board of three members, appointed by the mayor, while in towns the board of selectmen exercise the licensing power. For the city of Boston, after various abortive experiments with locally chosen license officials, a board of excise appointed by the governor has been established. When Alabama recently abandoned prohibition, the state board showed its distrust of locally elective or appointive licensing authorities by providing that in each city or town where the sale of liquor is authorized, (under the operation of local option), an excise board shall be established whose members are appointed by the governor. New Hampshire has gone a step farther in creating a state licensing board with exclusive authority. In Missouri, cities of more than 300,000 population must have an excise commissioner who alone may grant saloon privileges. Vermont has local license commissioners appointed by the assistant judges of the county court.

The latest experiment with excise boards is that about to be tried by Ohio under an act passed in May of this year which became operative in

August, in virtue of the enabling constitutional amendments adopted in 1912. Formerly the constitution of Ohio did not countenance the licensing of liquor selling, and the traffic was maintained under a tax law which left regulation to the local community. The new act creates a state licensing board of three members, appointed by the governor. This state board appoints for each county throughout which the sale of liquor is not prohibited by law, a county licensing board of two members, with power to remove them for cause. The county boards have general jurisdiction in licensing matters, subject to law and to revision by the state board to which appeals lie from all final decisions of a county, except in cases of suspension or the rejection of an application. The prescriptions in regard to license conditions, etc., are very elaborate. One noteworthy innovation is that, upon petition of 35 per cent of the electors of a municipality, a special election may be held to decide whether saloon licenses shall be further limited than provided by the statute (one to five hundred of population).

Still another group of states, apparently distrustful of all elective government boards as well as of appointive excise commissioners, charges the courts with the duty of issuing liquor licenses. Arkansas utilizes the county courts for this purpose, and selling privileges are only issued in cities and towns. Kentucky likewise employs the county courts as licensers. Various restrictions and conditions are imposed, among them that due consideration shall be given the needs of a "neighborhood" in which a license is applied for, but leaves it to the court to define the neighborhood. With the exception noted above, Missouri law makes the licensing body. New Jersey, as we have seen, utilizes the court of common pleas in part. Pennsylvania requires the courts of quarter sessions to deal with liquor licenses, and no longer excepts certain localities by special statute as in former times when the city of Philadelphia, for instance, had its own excise board. In Virginia, all licenses are issued by the circuit or corporation courts. Texas relies upon its county courts, and requires that all applications shall be rigidly scrutinized by the state comptroller of public accounts. Maryland takes a partial step toward court regulation of licenses by conferring the authority upon the clerk of the circuit court (for Baltimore the clerk of the court of common pleas).

There is not space to enumerate the different kinds of licensing bodies that may exist under special city charters. It should be remembered, however, that with the advent of the commission form of government a new species of licensing authority has come into the field of whose doings for good or evil there is as yet little evidence, but which offer an interesting field of study.

I have dwelt at some length upon the subject of license authorities, not only to show the variety of expedients resorted to, but because it is the crux of the situation. One many fairly assert that as a rule the liquor traffic takes its color from the body which exercises the licensing power. If this is inefficient or caters to unclean interests, the traffic surely sinks to lower levels and *vice versa.* It matters, under certain circumstances perhaps greatly but is not so fundamental, by what devices state or local laws attempt to hold a licensing body to a performance of its difficult task through specific prescriptions. *The essential thing is to have authorities of the right caliber and trusted character.* The most carefully elaborated regulations in licensing and supervising the sale of intoxicants may become a dead letter unless executed by persons endowed with broad views and plenty of backbone and who set a just performance of duty above aught else. This is a truism as old as the history of liquor legislation.

There is, then, throughout the United States, a bewildering array of methods designed to work out the knotty questions of controlling the liquor traffic in the interests of the whole community. Some may contend that here and there current methods have passed the experimental stage, yet it is an unsafe generalization when applied widely, for although some of the licensing authorities themselves are above the thought of suspicion, the conditions of law under which they labor may prevent them from making their dictates wholly effective. The ideal system of licensing is perhaps still to be evolved. Meanwhile it is too patent that in numerous cases, probably in most, the licensing machinery is working badly or has already demonstrated its inherent unfitness.

The origin of these utterly different methods of licensing, which relate not only to the choice of excise authorities but to the legal provisions that govern their functions, is not difficult to trace. Most license legislation has as its foundation ancient fragments of law upon which the statutory structure has been reared by slow degrees. The usual method has been to pass new laws to meet specific evils, as they arise, pinning faith on restrictions and penalties, with little effort to search out sound principles. Ordinarily two parties are busy about liquor legislation! The persons whose sole conception is to surround the traffic with a multitude of prohibitions since they cannot wipe it out altogether, and, opposed to them, the trade interests, who fight for their own. Outside stands the great public with little voice in the final outcome and too often disposed to accept with meekness the hodge-podge legislation handed them.

Is there no better way? Surely out of the experience with many licensing systems, with legislation embodying a multitude of experiments, it must be possible to extract some guiding principles of the utmost value to future legislation. The ancient method of fabricating liquor laws solely on a theory, or entrusting the process to those whose aim is obstruction rather than sane regulation, has gone by. To those whose philosophy in dealing with the liquor question, as with other complicated social problems, is summed up in the word "experimentation," it should be said, Experiment by all means; but, for goodness sake, base your efforts upon careful study of the results experience yields!

Although the liquor problem engages the attention of our law makers year by year, and is constantly in the public eye, there has been a pitiful lack of competent study of its legislative phases. The fulminating literature against abuse of liquor and the vociferous demand for sumptuary laws do not meet the issue. In fifteen years or more not a single far-reaching investigation has been made of the subject. Meanwhile our legislative mills have turned out a varied assortment of grist, and some significant changes have taken place which must not be ignored.

The question of regulative liquor legislation has largely ceased to be one of supreme importance to the rural district and the village. It has emphatically settled down to be, what it once was not—a municipal problem. Those who are entitled to speak for the trade have of late reiterated again and again that their interest lies altogether in maintaining the traffic in the municipalities, and there is evidence enough to warrant our taking them at their word. The liquor question as a municipal problem certainly looms large enough. In 1910 (the latest available figures are for this year), there were only 28 cities of over 30,000 population out of a total of 184 in the United States which were not actively concerned with the business of regulating the legalized liquor traffic, not to mention the large number of smaller communities that have to face it. Of course one may assume that not all of these 28 municipalities were exempt from the troubles arising from an illegal traffic.

There are, to be sure, those who strenuously deny that the ultimate problem is one of regulation even so far as municipalities are concerned. Throwing the experience of generations to the winds, they hold with unreasoning faith that by a legislative fiat the whole problem can be solved; and they accept no alternative. Yet, whether one likes to admit it or not, the old question abides, and those who would do more than dream must listen to it: What can be done to secure a saner and safer conduct of a traffic which so vitally affects the order and well-being of our municipalities?

Hitherto there has been a tacit understanding in license legislation that no help or coöperation could be expected from representatives of the trade. Instead the aim has solely been to antagonize and rout them. If at any time this was at all wise it is so no longer. Hateful as the admission may be to some far-sighted men are beginning to realize that future regulative measures must be worked out in coöperation with the chief spokesmen for the trade, who are persuaded that evil conditions are not conducive to their interests and therefore would welcome whatever makes for stable albeit stringent supervision. They admit the besetting dangers of the traffic as well as the need for housecleaning. Is not an appreciation of this a better guide to action than the spirit of oppression or suppression which invites opposition at each stage and invariably defeats the end sought? There lurks no thought behind this of compromising with patent evils; but of employing effective means of minimizing them. Objection to this view can only be raised by those whose zeal obscures their vision of the attainable.

Although perhaps the largest issue in any regulative scheme is the choice of licensing authorities, it is not the only test of effective liquor legislation. Closely allied to it are questions of delineating the power of excise authorities, whether it should be severely restrictive or made elastic; how far the state should undertake to prescribe minute rules governing selling or whether the local community should have a voice in formulating them; how licenses should be classified not only for purposes of taxation but with an eye to public safety; how far abuse may be prevented by favoring the sale of lighter beverages as against the more alcoholic, etc. These and many other related questions are inseparable from a competent scheme of liquor legislation.

It has already been intimated how diversely our lawmakers answer them, and, one may add, how ineffectively in most instances. The liquor laws of some states are infinitely to be preferred to those of others as making for decent conduct. Yet the statutes of no one commonwealth embody the final wisdom nor do they offer a universal model. But is not one remedy against all this faltering, this blind experimentation which frequently does not live beyond two legislative sessions, patient inquiry, an elucidation of facts and principles and an intelligent comparison of results? The everlasting agitation and heaping up of new measures demonstrates abundantly that there is something amiss. Hitherto we have mostly been concerned—it is an American habit of mind—in casting about for some new legislative expedient with child-like faith in the efficacy of any additional "thou shalt not." It irks us to seek out facts and painstakingly lay bare the results of wide experience that we may build up a safer structure. Yet we admit that to capitalize experience spells progress.

Fully persuaded of some of these things and how intimately the liquor question bears upon the community life, the National Muncipal League,[2] through one of its committees, has essayed to study especially some of the chief legislative phases of the subject. The League has already given it some attention.

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[2] The National Municipal League's committee on the liquor problem consists of Camillus G. Kidder, Orange, N. J., chairman; Very Rev. Walter T. Sumner, The Cathedral, Chicago; John Koren, Boston; Arthur H. Hall, Minneapolis; President S. C. Mitchell, University of South Carolina; Maynard M. Clement, Albany, N. Y., former excise commissioner of New York; Prof. F. Spencer Baldwin, of the Boston

It might almost seem impertinent to emphasize anew how large a factor the liquor traffic is in municipal affairs. It is a commonplace to speak of the dangers adhering to the traffic. If left uncontrolled, intolerable excesses follow, as all the world knows. It is equally commonplace to regard the traffic as a dangerous element in politics. The story of rum-ridden city governments, of saloon-owned police officials, with all its unsavory details, has often been told. No investigation is needed to convince anyone that these things have existed and do now exist, in municipalities under license as well as in those from which the law has formally banished the traffic. But what underlies such manifestations? The existence of abuses of one kind or another argues, in the first instance, lack of proper control or the employment of inefficient methods. It is history that excesses can be done away with. And there is no inherent relation between liquor selling and politics. The business easily gravitates toward it, sometimes from sheer greed, and very often as a matter of self-defense against oppressive and unjust measures. But there is no necessary connection. There are cities in which the traffic has been subjected to legal restraint in the same way as other business, where it has no dominant voice in government and where it is under, not over, the police powers, and where excesses are summarily suppressed. To deny this were to confess to a situation not offering a ray of hopefulness.

Why, then, does the status of the liquor traffic present such marked

University, and Prof. Augustus Raymond Hatton of the Western Reserve University, Cleveland.

The National Municipal League, as a matter properly incident to its study of municipal problems decided to undertake a further research, building upon the foundation of some of the work of the committee of fifty; but carrying the investigation much further in certain limited aspects. By diligent and painstaking research, the committee of the League hopes to arrive at definite, practical results which may serve as a basis for legislative action. The hope will be that ultimately, through sound legislation as nearly uniform in character as possible, the liquor traffic may be divorced from politics, graft and the social evil. That this is possible, the success of efforts in a few localities gives strong reason for hope.

Recognizing that this will take much time and that it is advisable to concentrate the initial enquiry upon one important phase of the problem, it decided, upon the report of a committee appointed to outline the scope of the work, to confine the activities of the League in the first instance to one definite, particular thing. namely, the licensing question, who should issue liquor licenses, what should be their powers and what legislative restrictions should govern their actions.

So far no far-reaching authoritative study has been made of the licensing question. Yet the whole history of license regulation shows it to be the crux of the situation. A careful study of the practical workings of each of the various methods will, it is hoped, find the better way. The general adoption of the best system of granting licenses will be a long step toward the solution of the whole problem.—Editor.

contrasts in different municipalities? Ideals are not everywhere the same, to be sure, but human nature is. The bottom cause must be sought in the divergent regulative means and measures employed. The League has set itself the large task of finding out about these things, convinced that much needed information can be extracted by a patient study of them. How far it may succeed depends, in the first instance, upon the kind of support accorded the undertaking.

Competent men are already at work upon this problem; but if the results of their inquiry are to command the approval of intelligent and unbiased citizens in every state, if they are worthily to supplement and complete the labors of the Committee of Fifty, these results must be formulated and tested by men who make such work the business of their lives, their labors must be adequately supported, the expenses paid and the investigators compensated.

The burden of the foregoing article is that the liquor problem is now mainly a problem of municipal government; that it cries for solution and that it can be solved.

Oct-1913

SHORT ARTICLES

THE CITY-MANAGER PLAN OF GOVERNMENT FOR DAYTON[1]

ON AUGUST 12 the voters of Dayton, Ohio, approved a charter giving to that city a "city-manager" plan of government—making it the first American municipality of considerable size to secure this form of government. To this feature of a "controlled executive" has been added a number of progressive administrative ideas.

The power is vested in a non-partisan commission of five, elected at large, in the place of the ward council. It was urged by a number of authorities on municipal matters that the commission would be more representative were its number nine or seven, rather than five, but the latter number was agreed upon in order to secure a shorter ballot. None of the candidates are for designated offices, so the preferential form of voting was discarded for the ordinary primaries with a later election—it being thought impractical to ask voters to designate five first, five second and five other choices. Consideration was given the Hare proportional representation scheme, but it was discarded for the time being, in the belief that its use would foster political alignment in municipal elections. Elections are to be held every two years, the three candidates receiving the greatest vote at the first election being chosen for a four-year term, the others for two years. The candidate receiving the highest vote at the election at which the greatest number of commissioners are elected shall be mayor, to perform the few duties incumbent upon him by general state law, and "for ceremonial purposes." All members of the commission, as well as the city manager, are subject to the recall upon a 25 per cent petition of the registered electors.

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[1] With its adoption in Dayton, the increasing interest in the city manager plan of municipal government is now elevated to the status of an important movement. Every charter revision committee must now reckon with this plan, and in fact such committees are already doing so. The real pioneer, of course, is Sumter, S. C. (8000 population), which has had the plan in effect since January 1. Sumter in turn got it from Lockport, N. Y., whose board of trade presented the plan fruitlessly to the state legislature two years ago. Dayton being the first real city to adopt the plan, seems destined to assume the position which Galveston and Des Moines have occupied in relation to the commission plan.

The basic theories involved in the position of an appointive city manager, holding office at the pleasure of an elective commission, have been dealt with at length in an article entitled "The Theory of the New Controlled Executive Plan," by Richard S. Childs, in the January, 1913, issue of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW. In brief, the theoretical gains are as follows:

Unlike the Des Moines type of commission plan, it gives complete unification of the administrative establishment.

It makes it possible to have a permanent professional expert administrator.

It abolishes the one-man power in the mayor-and-council plan (since this executive is under continuous control).

It leaves the people free to choose candidates simply as representatives, unlimited by any implied requirement as to executive experience or capacity to earn a large salary. (This feature is of especial interest to labor.)

It abandons the unscientific plan of attempting to select executive experts by popular election for short terms.

Except as to its civil service provisions, the Dayton charter is a valuable contribution to the progress of municipal government. Its features in detail are discussed in this article.—EDITOR.

In distinction from the straight commission plan the duties of the commission are purely legislative—passing the annual appropriation ordinance, police and public improvement regulations, with the usual legislative power to investigate the operation of any department. The city manager, chosen to serve at the pleasure of the commission (with the recall provision), is the administrative head of the government, appoints and fixes salaries of his immediate subordinates including the principal departmental and sub-departmental heads and their deputies, and is personally responsible for the entire administration of the city. There is a striking analogy between the functions and accountability of this officer and his superiors, as compared with the similar position of the superintendent of public instruction and the school board in many localities.

To comply strictly with managerial theories the executive should be empowered to employ and dismiss such of his employees as he desires, and to stipulate such compensation as he deems necessary. In this instance civil service clauses are incorporated, which provide examinations to determine persons eligible for appointment in all but a small unclassified service; insure the standardization of wages and equal pay for equal service in all branches of the government; create a six months probationary period before appointment; and which requires the certification of all payrolls by the chief examiner—all features of a modern merit law. However, it is further provided that the manager, in consultation with the chief examiner, shall make the designations for appointment *from the entire eligible list*, rather than from the three highest. Such a rule conforms with private business practice, but in public affairs will probably secure employment for the politically desirable, and serve to vitiate the entire merit system. Nor did the charter commission carry their theory of independence in the selection of city employees to its logical conclusion—freedom to hire and dismiss at pleasure: persons employed cannot be permanently relieved from duty except by substantiation of charges before the civil service board. It is doubtful if such a law meets the requirements of the state constitution, which provides that appointments shall be made according to fitness and merit.

As would be anticipated, the powers and duties of the manager are a summation of all powers usually granted to the heads of departments, boards, or units of government over whom he will have supervision and control. Such duties will comprehend:

a. Supervision of departmental administration.
b. The execution of laws and ordinances.
c. Recommendation of legislative measures.
d. Appointment of officers and employes, subject to the provisions of the civil service sections.
e. Preparation of reports.
f. Preparation of the budget.

After lengthy debate relative to the merits of leaving the creation of departments and the distribution of their powers to the legislative body of the city, such plan was adversely decided upon. The departmental organization of the city consequently has been specified in the charter, permitting fundamental duties to be assigned to the more important departmental heads. A reservation is made, however, by which the commission may create additional departments, and may discontinue or distribute their functions. The charter organization of the city, excepting schools and the courts controlled by general state law, is practically as follows:

1. The Commission (subject to initiative, referendum, recall and protest).
    - A. Civil service board.
    - B. City manager.
        1. Department of law.
        2. Department of public service, comprising the construction and maintenance of streets, sidewalks and sewers; collection and disposal of waste; and management of public utilities.
        3. Department of safety, comprising the divisions of fire and police; building inspection; and the enforcement of ordinances relating to weights and measures.
        4. Department of finance, comprising the divisions of accounting, the treasury, and the purchasing of supplies.
        5. Department of public welfare, comprising the divisions of health, parks and playgrounds, charities and correction.

A provision borrowed from Germany, but unique in American practice, recommends the appointment of a city-plan board by the commission, and provides for such other citizen-boards to act in an advisory capacity with departmental heads, as the city manager may deem expedient. No powers are granted these bodies, except as may hereafter be created by ordinance.

More interesting features of the proposed Dayton charter are to be found in the administrative clauses which have been incorporated—features which have been notably absent in the fundamental law of most municipalities. The charter commissioners were thoroughly imbued with the idea that inefficient government is due to badness of methods rather than badness of men; and as a proposed remedy have included adequate provisions governing budgetary and accounting procedure, a purchasing department, granting of franchises, public improvements and other subjects differentiated from the organic law of the city. The appropriation estimates are to be compiled by the city manager from detailed information obtained from the several departments on uniform blanks. The entire classification of expense must be as nearly uniform as possible for the main functional divisions of all departments, and there must be presented in parallel columns the following information:

a. A detailed estimate of departmental needs.
b. Expenditures for corresponding items covering the past two years.
c. Expenditures of the present year including transfers.
d. Supplies on hand.
e. Increases and decreases in requests.
f. Other information required.
g. Recommendations of the city manager.

Provision is made for the publication and public hearings on the budget estimate before it can be enacted into law, and an additional proviso that the appropriation shall never exceed the estimated income.

In connection with these budgetary sections there is an original clause which will obviate a common difficulty met in municipal finance—the presence of more than ample money to the credit of certain funds, while legitimate charges and pay-rolls against other appropriations go unliquidated because of temporary financial stringency. It is provided in the Dayton charter that

> all moneys actually in the treasury to the credit of the fund from which they are to be drawn, and moneys . . . . anticipated to come into the treasury . . . . shall be considered in the treasury to the credit of the appropriate fund.

The accounting provisions were arrived at after a lengthy consideration of best municipal accounting practices including New York and Cincinnati procedures, as well as the code in process of preparation for New Jersey. Difficulty was met, not in determining what systems should be provided, but in reducing the outline of the procedure to fundamentals, and within the limits of a brief charter. Two sections found in the proposed Cleveland charter were finally incorporated, and which require that

> accounting procedures shall be devised and maintained for the city *adequate to record in detail all transactions affecting the acquisition, custodianship and disposition of values.*

A corollary clause, but the one upon which the above depends for its interpretation, reads in part as follows:

> the commission shall cause a continuous audit to be made . . . . . such statements shall include a general balance sheet, exhibiting the assets and liabilities of the city supported by departmental schedules, and schedules for each utility publicly owned or operated; summaries of income and expenditure supported by detailed schedules; and also comparisons . . . . with the last previous year.

A strict accounting interpretation of the terms "income and expenditure" will place the city accounting upon a *liability basis* rather than the usual *cash receipts and disbursements basis*, upon which most cities operate. Immediately following the inauguration of the new commission it is expected that ordinances, now in preparation, detailing the departmental procedure necessary under the foregoing clauses will be passed. Such ordinances will specify the ledgers and records to be installed, the method of central control, character of operation reports, unit cost records—in brief will be the basis of an accounting manual for the municipality.

Dovetailed to these provisions for financial accounting are regulations for proper pay-roll control. It is provided that the "head of each department . . . . shall require proper time reports for all services rendered . . . . to serve as a basis for the preparation of pay-roll vouchers," and by which each departmental head must submit "current financial and operating statements exhibiting the transactions (of his department) and the cost thereof." In this manner it is believed that adequate fundamental provision has been made for budget making, general finance accounts, cost accounts and operative records.

Revenue systems and forms of taxation are prescribed by general state law, not subject to charter modification. However, complete detail has been provided for the financing of public improvements, too lengthy to be discussed in a brief article.[2]

Public utility franchises may be granted, subject to referendum, but no franchises shall be exclusive, and each shall state the terms under which the property may be assumed by the city; or the municipality reserves the right to condemn public utility property.

So brief was the time allowed for the preparation of the Dayton charter, that in many respects the document has a "scissors and paste" character; however, there are numerous features which were given painstaking thought and care,—notably the plan of organization and the financial sections. No formal survey of the local government was made, yet the commissioners were familiar with the shortcomings of most of the city departments—the absolute lack of modern accounting system, the absence of efficiency, cost and operating records, the need of budgetary procedure, the weakness of the health service, the partisan and ineffective character of the merit system—sufficiently familiar with these problems to mould a procedure and adopt a program commensurate with the needs of the community. The experience of Dayton will be a distinct contribution to the science of politics.

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[2] Copies of the complete charter may be had gratis from the Dayton bureau of municipal research.

L. D. Upson.[1]

THE MUNICIPAL REFERENCE LIBRARY[2]

MOST people admit that our city governments need improving, but not so many are ready to point out the way to improvement. Facts are necessary, experience and knowledge must be consulted and weighed. Newspapers may fatten their circulation list by exploiting maladministration in the abstract, but how few of them can and do suggest a course of remedial action. They are quick to arouse, but slow to educate.

However much we may deplore the many defects in our present city governments and the inadequacy of present day criticism, great hope is to be found in those cities where sincere effort is being made to know the facts; in those cities now looked to as laboratories for the new science of city government.

There is a decided agitation at present for establishing in every city of importance in the country a library of municipal reference, a clearing house of municipal information. This agitation has resulted in several well established special libraries in various cities, among which we find

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[1] Director, Dayton bureau of municipal research.

[2] In 1909, the National Municipal League recognizing the value and importance of municipal reference libraries, appointed a committee to investigate the subject and make recommendations as to the organization of such libraries. After a thorough investigation of the subject, the committee submitted its report at the meeting of the League in Buffalo, November, 1910. The recommendations made by the committee for the organization of such libraries are contained in the article by Mr. Crecraft. Copies of this report were sent by the committee to the mayors and public libraries of the larger cities, with a letter calling attention to the importance of the subject. The results have justified the efforts of the League, for since the report was made the following cities have established such libraries: New York, Chicago, Philadelphia, St. Louis, Portland, Ore., Oakland, Toronto. All of these, with the exception of New York, have established the libraries along the lines recommended by the committee by placing the library under the control of the public library, with an office in the city hall. The form of organization of the Milwaukee library has also been changed by placing it under the public library, with an office in the city hall.

The League has recently appointed a smaller committee on municipal reference

Baltimore, Milwaukee, Kansas City, St. Louis, Philadelphia, Portland, Ore., New York, Chicago, Minneapolis, Oakland and Toronto.

A municipal reference library is not to be assimilated to statistical bureaus such as are found in Chicago or Boston, each serving a particular purpose in their respective cities. Nor is the municipal reference library at all identical with a bureau of municipal research such as the New York City bureau. A municipal reference library should supplement the work of a bureau of municipal research, and should be equally advantageous to all branches of the city government. It should serve as a bureau of information on experiments in all cities. Such subjects should be followed and conservative data filed as concern city charters, gas rates, water rates, cold storage, city planning, grade crossing, efficiency in fire and in police departments, home rule, industrial education, paving, street railway fares and franchises, and all other problem of vital interest to every city government.

The much advertised mayor of one of our principal cities recently made the statement that he would need the whole of his first term to learn how to be an efficient mayor. Traveling from one city to another was to be included in his mayoralty duties as he understood them. He soon became known as the traveling mayor. The motive in this case was good, but the method questionable. Experience could be brought to the very doors of that executive and to other officials desiring information, and brought at a great saving of time and of money to the city.

At present New York is interested in establishing the least wasteful water supply system possible. What fund of experience of other cities is it to draw upon? Where can New York get information? Again, Mayor Hunt of Cincinnati recently delivered a speech describing the system of building inspection by firemen now in operation in that city. By personal correspondence among city officials it was learned that Minneapolis had already originated the system. But the fire chief of St. Louis,

libraries and city archives for the purpose of trying to secure the establishment of municipal reference libraries in all the more important cities and this committee has decided to use the article prepared by Mr. Crecraft instead of preparing a new report or having the 1910 report reprinted. The committee cannot urge too strongly, however, that in making provision for municipal reference libraries, an adequate appropriation be made for their maintenance and that only those of scientific training be placed in charge of them. It is also absoutely essential that such libraries be so organized as to prevent political interference. The greater the number of such libraries, the greater the possibilities for coöperation in this work.

The committee on municipal reference libraries and archives consists of Dr. Horace E. Flack, legislative reference department, Baltimore, Md., chairman; Hon. Thomas Lynch Montgomery, state librarian, Harrisburg, Pa; Miss Edith Tobitt, librarian, Omaha Public Library; Dr. Henry J. Harris, Library of Congress, Washington; Dr. Robert H. Whitten, librarian, public service commission, New York City.

so it was soon learned, was equally certain that his city had been using the identical system for "years." Cincinnati should have had the benefits of the experience of these cities, and every city at present facing future problems of building inspection should be informed as to the results of such experiments.

The history of the municipal reference library begins with the city of Baltimore. The department of legislative reference was created by an act of the legislature of 1906, and operations began January 1, 1907. Its establishment was the result of interest taken by certain public spirited citizens of Baltimore who realized the need of having some department whose business it would be to collect and compile information which would be of value to the efficient public official and to the interested public. The law creating the department provided for an advisory board consisting of the mayor, the city solicitor, the president of Johns Hopkins University, and the president of the Merchants and Manufacturers' Association. First among the duties devolving on the board was that of providing for the employment of a "competent statistician as its executive officer," who should "organize and conduct the said department" and should "hold office. . . . during good behavior," and "be subject to removal by the said board, or a majority thereof, for incompetence or neglect of duty." Further provision was made that it should be the "duty of said executive officer to investigate and report upon the laws of this and other states and cities relating to any subject upon which he might be requested to so report by the mayor, any committee of the city council or the head of any city department; to accumulate all data obtainable in relation to the practical operation and effect of such laws; to investigate and collect all available information relating to any matter which is the subject of proposed legislation by the general assembly of Maryland or the city council of Baltimore." The same law provided that the executive officer "preserve and collate all information obtained carefully indexed and arranged so as to be at all times easily accessible to city officials and open to the inspection of the general public." The salary for the executive was placed at $2000 per annum, and additional appropriation was made "sufficient to pay all other expenses of the department."

So much for the creation of the department; now as to the results. The department is meeting with success. It has been in existence five years and there is an increasing demand made upon it for information on a wide variety of subjects. Evidence of its growth is found in the recent proposition to place under its jurisdiction the present city library, or rather the city archives, which is the depository of all city documents. During the first four years the department has collected 1326 books and 5517 pamphlets, and in addition to these a number of duplicates of the more important reports, including clippings, magazines, typewritten reports, letters. In addition to this there are on file in the department all bills of the Maryland legislature for the past two sessions and a number of the more important bills of other states. An index is kept also of the ordinances of the city. These indexes are of great value since ready reference is possible to any bill or ordinance of Baltimore.

To what extent has the library been of service to the city, might be asked. The report issued by the executive of the library explains fully the nature of the material kept on file, but is not so clear in stating specific instances where the library has been of real service. The report makes the following statement: "It is not possible to estimate the value of the services rendered by the department since the information collected is for the use of other officials and departments." Consequently it is plain to see that if a fair proof is to be had of the actual work of the library, testimony must be had from those using the library as supplementing that of the otherwise excellent annual report of the librarian.

Aside from the mere collecting and cataloging of information, the department has followed somewhat the method adopted of issuing bulletins by the legislative reference bureaus and has prepared, in a number of cases, compilations on gas (rates, etc.), liquor licenses, tax discounts, civil service laws, boards and commissions, and a number of other valuable compilations intended for a means of guidance for proposed legislation.

The result is that no department of the city government need try any new scheme or measure without having learned how other municipalities deal with the same questions and with what success. Experiments are often costly. To be forewarned is to be forearmed. The health commissioner, the chairman of the tax commission, the mayor, city solicitor, city engineer, all have requested information on subjects appertaining to the work of their various departments.

The total expenditures of the department for the first year amounted to $3023.09 of which $2523.34 was for salaries. Thus only $110.38 was expended for books and magazines, while the worth of the whole material collected is very much greater than the price paid.

The Milwaukee municipal reference library is a branch of the Milwaukee public library, but its apartments are situated in the city hall. A separate appropriation of $5000 is carried. This covers the expense of the salaries of the librarian, the assistant and a stenographer. It is the policy of the librarian to free the municipal reference work as much as possible from the regulations governing the library proper. The correspondence, collection of material and cataloging is done independently of the public library. Orders for books and supplies, however, are made through the public library.

The material of most value on file consists of government and municipal reports, the reports of civic organisations and meetings, clippings from newspapers and magazines and the like. By the existing arrangement the director of the branch library is in constant touch with the aldermen. It is found very helpful in operating the library to have this physical proximity of the office to the committee room.

Lately the bureau has taken over the work of drawing up all resolutions and ordinances, except those of a technical nature, these latter belonging exclusively to the work of the legal department.

The library was established about the middle of the year 1908 as a department of the public library. Shortly after, however, it was made an independent department and the mayor was empowered to appoint the librarian. The ordinances of January 3, 1911, reorganized the department. As to the librarian the ordinance provides that he "shall be an expert in political science, political economy and statistics. He shall hold office during good behavior and shall be subject to removal in accordance with the rules governing other employees of the Milwaukee public library."

> The duties of the librarian, according to the same ordinance, shall be to collect and compare the laws of Wisconsin and other states and the ordinances of Milwaukee and other cities and report upon the laws and ordinances pertaining to which he may be requested to report by the mayor, any committee or member of the common council of said city; to accumulate all data obtainable in relation to the practical operation and effect of such laws and ordinances; to collect all available information relating to any matter which may be the subject of proposed legislation by the common council; to preserve and collate all information obtained and carefully index and arrange the same so that it may be at all times easily accessible to the city officials and to the open inspection and use for reference purposes by the general public.

The present librarian has had charge of this library for one year and during that time there has been collected a mass of important material.

A municipal reference library has been in existence in Kansas City for several years. Unfortunately, however, there has been not a little opposition to the movement on the part of the press and on the part of those who did not know of the real purpose of the library.

The new administration in the city did not repeal the ordinance creating the department, but in the general reduction of appropriations, the fund for the reference library was reduced from $3000 to $2000 for the year 1912.

The work of carrying on a municipal reference library which is thoroughly efficient and worthy of the name, involves such an exhaustive amount of supervision and at the same time such vast detail work, that it must quite surpass the activities of any one man. It therefore is difficult to regard a city as having a real municipal reference library which fails to provide for the constant employment of several workers.

At the present time there is a movement on foot to establish a municipal reference library in New York City.[3] Dr. W. H. Allen, head of the bureau of municipal research, explaining the need of such a bureau, shows that at present the large number of outside inquiries concerning various branches of new city government have no one center through which they may be cleared. As a result it is necessary for the outside inquirer to write perhaps to as many as twenty different city officials in order to be assured of the information wanted. That there should be a careful and permanent bureau of municipal information and a professional municipal correspondent in charge is undeniable and the need of such will no doubt be met in the near future.

The project last year to establish the municipal reference library got as far as the board of aldermen where it was dropped. In New York a resolution was adopted by the board of estimate and apportionment calling for the creation of such a library. In compliance with this resolution a report was made which explained the status of existing municipal reference libraries.

It was carefully shown in this report that such a library had no function of criticism, that it presupposed the absolute integrity and probity of that political representative, the alderman. It asserted its sole purpose to be one of assisting the representative in putting the government of his community on a more scientific basis, by placing at his disposal, after painstaking analyses and exhaustive comparative studies, the successes and failures of other communities. The appropriation asked for amounted to $20,450.

The Civic League of St. Louis in recommending a municipal reference bureau to the board of freeholders, made the following statement:

> The value of comparative data in dealing with municipal questions can hardly be overestimated. . . . . An officer whose duty it should be to keep in touch with municipal movements everywhere and be ready to supply the information to those who are charged with making the laws and administering them should, we believe, be provided for in the new charter.

In accordance with a concurrent resolution of the municipal legislature the municipal reference branch of the St. Louis public library went into operation October 23, 1911. The library is housed in the city hall adjoining the houses of legislation. The branch is not only a municipal reference library, but it is a public library as well, and is open to all citizens.

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[3] Since this article was prepared for the press, New York City has established a municipal reference library.

The department is non-political and non-partisan, the data and information being so set forth that the facts speak for themselves. The collection now numbers about 15 books and 2000 pamphlets, the civic league and the mayor being the chief donors of the material. Information is sought and given by correspondence such letters and material so collected forming a large and important part of the collection of the library.

It is not possible to set down in detail the work of the library. The requests for information have been very numerous, and all receive equal consideration whether of a trivial or important nature. Departments have come to make it a regular business of depending on the library for information.

The branch has very recently been made the exchange agency for the St. Louis city documents. The mailing list for the publications of the city has up to the present time been in the hands of the city register, who has charge of the printing and distribution of the documents and ordinances. Under the present arrangement postage and express charges will be met from city appropriation, but the register will turn over to the municipal branch available documents, and the exchange will be carried on under the direction of the branch librarian.

The use of the library by the city's officials and others has been very gratifying. At present, however, more requests for information are received from other cities than from those persons who have ready access to the department. The number of inquiries is nevertheless gradually increasing and there is a trend upwards in the importance of the requests. There is every indication that there will be a gradual growth in the use of the department as its functions become familiar to those for whom the branch was primarily intended.

From the beginning a record has been kept of the requests for information; the departments of the city seeking information, and a list of other cities asking information concerning the affairs or problems of St. Louis.

In Boston the finance commission formed a bureau of municipal research whose purpose was to collect information for the commission, also to examine and study the city departments with a view to municipal improvement. The functions of this bureau are so closely allied to those of the finance commission that it would be difficult to determine the line of demarkation. In this very important respect it differs from the libraries of municipal reference which are engaged in work in other cities.

Philadelphia is the largest city yet to establish a municipal reference library.[4] Organized as a part of the Free Library of Philadelphia the municipal department began operation on July 1, 1912. The room is very pleasantly situated on the fifth floor in the north east corner of the city hall and is open during the week from nine until four and on Saturdays until noon.

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[4] Philadelphia is now third, for both New York and Chicago have but just recently established such libraries.

The establishment of the library is the result of two years of effort. The Free Library of Philadelphia for some time has been wanting to start the branch in connection with the department of public documents and it is largely through the courtesy of the director of public works that the room in the city hall was turned over to the library for this purpose.

The material in the library consists of the standard atlases, gazetteers, encyclopedias and dictionaries and a number of reference books and almanacs; also directories, telephone books, cable codes and railroad guides. In addition it contains all the reference books which are regarded as indexes to state or city government. Many leading periodicals bearing on city government are kept on file. In short a larger part of the material is in the nature of an index to the great collection of documents on state and city government now in the possession of the library.

A card catalogue makes possible ready reference to a large collection of municipal material containing the publications of over 350 cities scattered throughout the world.

It is a great satisfaction to those interested in the welfare of Philadelphia to realize that a library has been opened in the center of the city where city officials and all others interested in public questions relating to the city may obtain information.

Cleveland is the latest city to establish a municipal reference library. Mayor Baker has taken the initiative under the law of Ohio which permits the mayor to appoint two department examiners. One of these examiners is now organizing a department of information and complaint which is an attempt to supply the growing need for a central bureau of information for the use of the officials and the public in general. So far all the work of organizing the reference library is being carried on without financial assistance from the city council. Those in charge intend to have the work well under way and the usefulness well established before appealing to the city council for assistance. The organization will proceed along the same lines as described in the accounts of the various other libraries of this character.

The work of building up a special library of municipal reference is gaining the attention of a number of our state universities. The University of Wisconsin has taken the lead, and apart from any individual collection such as that of the Milwaukee library, has undertaken to establish a clearing house of information for the cities throughout the state. At the University of Kansas similar work is being carried on. The experiences of other cities are brought together and placed at the disposal of the

Kansas towns. The material is catalogued, filed, and made ready to be sent to the cities of the state for a loan of two weeks or more.

In the University of Illinois, the university library has been collecting municipal documents and other printed material which serve as a nucleus for a municipal reference library. Efforts have been made to secure an appropriation to put this work on an effective basis, but thus far without success. However, a hopeful sign is that the plan has been indorsed by one of the party platforms. The incoming legislature will doubtless take some action on the matter.

At the University of Cincinnati the department of public law is to become, also, a bureau of municipal reference for the city. The city council has appropriated $5000 for the work in 1913, and has invited the representatives of the department to take rooms adjacent to the council chamber at the city hall. Prof. S. G. Lowrie will have charge of this bureau and a similar one which has been established by Governor Cox at the state capital for the collection and preparation of material on state legislation. The first work of the municipal reference bureau will be that of aiding in the matter of charter revision. Information on all municipal questions is to be collected and so indexed and arranged as to be accessible to the council, the city's administrative officers, and the general public. The bureau will also serve as a laboratory for the public law students of the university. Each officer of the city, head of a department, and committee of the city council is to assist the director by furnishing to him all reports and copies of correspondence he may deem of value for future reference. The director is to collect and compare ordinances of this and other cities; to assist in the preparation of measures for introduction in the general assembly bearing on the city's needs; to secure books, pamphlets, periodicals and documents. He is to collect, classify and index the charters, franchises, ordinances and departmental reports of this and other cities and accumulate data regarding their practical operation and effect.

Recognizing the great value of building up municipal reference bureaus in the cities, the National Municipal League in 1909 appointed a committee to report upon the feasibility and desirability of municipal reference libraries. The committee sent out inquiries to librarians in all cities having a population of 50,000 or over. The replies indicated that there is almost complete unanimity as to the great need for the establishment of municipal reference libraries. The committee furthermore made examinations into the then existing legislative and municipal reference libraries, their organization, operation and efficiency, which examination resulted in the deliberate conclusions as follows: first, such libraries should be established; second, generally speaking they should be under the control of the public library; third, they should be located in the city halls; fourth, the head of such library should have had suitable training; fifth, the manner of selecting the head of such bureau should be determined according to the local conditions of the particular city; sixth, the bureau should be made the agency for the exchange of municipal documents; and seventh, the work of such bureau should comprise collecting, collating, compiling and dissemination of information; to aid in the drafting of ordinances, to furnish correct information to the press, to issue bulletins, and to remain neutral on all questions.

The committee again reported at the annual session of the National Municipal League at Los Angeles in August, 1912. This report gives a summary of the progress of municipal reference libraries. The cities of Oakland and Toronto are reported as having recently established municipal libraries. The committee further favored the bill now pending before congress for the establishment of a national legislative reference bureau with the additional provision that the functions of such bureaus be broadened so as to include municipal reference work.

It is the purpose of this review of municipal reference work, to recognize the rapid growth of the movement, to point out the great desirability of continuing the same, and to present the matter in a form that will interest the average public spirited reader equally as much as the expert librarian. It is the interest of the former, more than of the latter, that is now necessary to the further success of the municipal reference library.

EARL W. CRECRAFT.[1]

MUNICIPAL ELECTIONS IN DES MOINES, IOWA[2]

TO THE careful student, perhaps the most striking result of commission government is the type of campaign developed by the nonpartisan ballot. Certainly one of the most valuable consequences of commission government has been the raising of the standard of citizenship. The one is the complement of the other and the two are the essential foundation for real democratic government in our American cities.

The abolition of party lines in commission governed cities makes it impossible for candidates for office to depend upon the party machine for election. Indeed when the system is properly introduced, it is impossible for the party machine to be brought to play at all in a municipal campaign. The consequence is that the candidate must make his appeal almost entirely to public opinion, and can rely only upon such political organization as he can make personally.

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[1] Mr. Crecraft is a graduate of Franklin (Indiana) College and is an instructor in politics in the School of Journalism at Columbia University.

[2] For other articles on commission government published in the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW see: "City Government by Commission," Richard S. Childs, vol. i, p. 40; "Commission Government," Martin A. Gemunder, vol. i, p. 170; "Financial Results Under the Commission Form of City Government," Ernest S. Bradford, vol. i, p. 372; "Ten Years of Commission Government," W. B. Munro, vol. i, p. 562; "The Public Library in Commissioned Governed Cities," Alice S. Tyler, vol. ii, p. 255.

Abolishing ward lines and electing officers at large has a similar effect. The candidate can no longer depend upon log rolling among ward interests, nor upon the influence of local issues, nor upon the favor of local ward politicians to secure his election. He must face the entire electorate on the municipal issues and stand or fall according as he can impress the voters with his fitness to represent the entire city.

This is all admirably illustrated in the type of campaign developed under commission government in Des Moines. It is worth a trip half-way across the continent to observe one of these campaigns.

Under the Iowa law, any citizen who can secure the signatures of twenty-five of his fellow citizens to a statement of his honorable standing in the community, may become a candidate for mayor or commissioner. In our three campaigns this ease of candidacy has been taken advantage of by great numbers and there have been always from thirty to more than fifty aspirants to civic honors.

Coincident with the introduction of the Des Moines plan into our city affairs there sprang up all over the city, neighborhood organizations of voters under the title of improvement leagues, etc. There is one or more of these organizations for each precinct of the city. When the campaign, which generally begins about six weeks before the primary, is well under way, the various candidates are invited to appear before these leagues to present their claims to the suffrage of the voters. It will generally be found that several of these leagues are holding meetings in various parts of the city on the same night. A given league will invite perhaps a dozen speakers to appear at a single meeting. It thus chances that one candidate may be invited to speak at two or three meetings in an evening.

At these meetings, the various candidates, owing to the number that are to speak, find it necessary to present their claims to consideration in talks of not to exceed ten or twelve minutes. A speaker must make his impression upon his hearers in very short order. The more capable men soon discover that there is time for only two or three main impressions. If the candidate is wise, he concentrates on a few main issues and attempts to elucidate them with telling strokes. At the same time he must throw the force of his personality into the discussion. There is no time for idle words, for every moment must be made to count.

In the rapid review of candidates, the audience is, in each case, deciding on about three things. They decide first as to whether the speaker knows what he is talking about. In other words, they estimate his intellectual alertness and the soundness of judgment. Second, they decide upon the earnestness of purpose, or conviction, with which the candidate seems to present his issues. And finally having weighed the intelligence and sincerity of the candidate, they put an estimate upon his courage or determination of purpose which will or will not lead him to carry into effect the policies which he professes to stand for.

The candidate who impresses his hearers that he knows what he is talking about, that he means what he says, and that he has the courage in the hour of trial to stand for what he advocates, generally has the right of way to the voters' suffrage, provided of course that his position on the issues of the campaign appeals to the voter as being sound.

Before the campaign is over, the candidates who have appeared at this given league upon one occasion will have one or more other opportunities to appear before the same audience. Upon these second and third occasions the candidate has a further opportunity to elucidate his views on municipal issues and to confirm or to better the first impressions which his audience may have gained concerning him. By the time the primary election is at hand, the voters in the neighborhood of this league have put their estimates upon the various condidates, and by processes of comparison and elimination have pretty clearly decided which five of the total number they will support.

Even those who may not have attended the league meetings very faithfully during the six weeks campaign have heard the neighborhood discussion concerning the candidates. Opinion in the vicinity is very clearly outlined. Municipal issues and the personality of the candidate enter with somewhat varying proportions into the composition of the neighborhood opinion. If there are striking municipal issues upon which the people may divide, this has a large bearing upon the fortunes of the candidates. If, however, municipal issues are not pronounced, the personality of the candidate has a very large determining force. Indeed, with the impossibility of organizing candidates into groups, each group standing upon a given platform, the personality of the candidate has fully as much to do with his advancement as the issues for which he stands. Sometimes a candidate who marks out the issues of the campaign strongly secures his support chiefly upon his platform, while right along beside him some other candidate, who may stand for even contrary municipal policies, but who has a striking personality or mental vigor, earnestness and reputation for courageous and determined action, will also be successful. It is indeed a contest between personality and municipal issues.

These are undoubtedly the most desirable bases for the selection of the chief municipal officers. Yet there is the difficulty of raising municipal issues to their true importance.

At the same time, the influence of party politics upon the fortunes of municipal officers is entirely removed. The people come to resent the intrusion of party politics into municipal affairs. In Des Moines, which is over-whelmingly republican, the first mayor, a democrat, was as over-whelmingly elected over his republican opponent. Anyone aspiring to a municipal office who would lay claim to that office on the grounds of his party relations would be rejected by the people for so doing.

Another feature of our campaigns is the entire absence of sectional or ward influence. The candidate must face the entire electorate of the city upon the issues and interests of the entire city. He cannot go into one ward advocating measures for the good of that ward alone without incurring the hostility of the voters in other wards. The consequence is that the residence of the candidate is no longer inquired after, though at first there was considerable jealousy over this point. One who is not broad enough to be a citizen of the entire city has small hope of convincing a majority of the voters of the entire city of his fitness to participate in the determination of municipal policies as a member of the city council.

Thus, by the time the field of candidates has appeared successively before the various improvement leagues of the city and the date of the primary is approaching, the various hearings secured and the general discussion that has resulted among even those who may not have attended the meetings, has established a general public opinion as to the merits of the various candidates.

One of the most interesting features of a campaign to observe is the growing or waning fortunes of the respective candidates. A field of forty or fifty candidates will start out with apparently little difference in the prospects of success. After a couple of weeks of this style of public discussion, a comparatively small number will gradually forge to the front in public esteem, until as the primaries approach, it becomes quite evident that the choice lies among some twelve or fifteen leading aspirants.

But the real contest comes when the primary is over, and the two candidates for mayor and the eight candidates for commissioner who are to participate in the election two weeks later, have been chosen.

The primary often reveals surprises in the persons of the successful candidates. A well organized constituency, furthering the candidacy of a given man in a large field, will often get more votes than men very much better fitted for the place. Among the half dozen candidates for mayor, one of the winners may have polled practically his entire strength in the primary. In the break-up of the supporters of the unsuccessful candidates, the vast majority will then go to the other man. This is especially true if the success of the first main candidate is felt by the majority of the people to be a menace to the welfare of the city. The same thing is true among the candidates for commissioner. The consequence is that after the primary, there is a hasty review of the situation, by both candidates and voters. After a brief respite for this review, the campaign is resumed with redoubled vigor. Between the two candidates for mayor, the contest is especially keen. So far, it has never descended to the plane of personalities and belittling of character.

The contest among the commissioners is somewhat different. Before the primary, one candidate for commissioner will seldom attack the record of any of his competitors for fear of alienating the support of the friends of the candidate so attacked. While this is not so true after the primary, yet, in a measure, it holds true even then. This is especially so in case of those candidates who feel sure of first or second place in the voting. Among the contestants for third and fourth place, the battle rages with somewhat more vigor and directness. Those knowing that their success depends upon the defeat of certain other candidates are less slow to offend the friends of those candidates, and attack any weak places in their records unsparingly.

The laws providing that no pre-election promises shall be made, and that no one may give or receive money for personal assistance in the campaign, have a very salutary effect. It is a great protection to the candidate to say that he cannot give money or make promises for any assistance. It relieves him of the incubus of the ward heeler and the political grafter. This protection is as valuable to the candidate as is the assurance of a higher degree of purity in the election to the general welfare of the city.

The ability and character of the men who are finally successful in the election is very good. Only men of superior ability and fair repute, who are able to contend before 20,000 voters and undergo their scrutiny, can be successful. The average ability of the commissioners is undoubtedly beyond what it was under the old plan.

James R. Hanna.[2]

PRIMARY ELECTION EXPENSES IN CHICAGO

THERE is no doubt that campaign expenses have largely increased as a result of the direct primary laws that are now on the statute books of many of our states. When the political bosses of the various parties could meet in back rooms and select candidates who would have back of them the organized strength of the machine, there was little occasion for the candidates to spend money or for their friends to spend it for them before nomination. Under such a system the only expense was in connection with the election campaign itself.

Under the primary election system, however, instead of one campaign there are two campaigns. It is not infrequently the case that there are more candidates to contest at the primary election than at the election itself. Where there is a large field of candidates and where from any

[2] Mayor of Des Moines.

reason of general public interest the fight is a hotly contested one, money is spent and spent freely.

Of course even under the direct primary system the political machine is a potent factor. By throwing its combined strength to any one candidate it gives him a tremendous advantage. A candidate who has the support of the machine is not under the necessity of spending as much money in the primary campaign as is the candidate who is fighting the machine. The machine candidate already has his organization in county and township or ward and precinct as the case may be.

On the contrary the anti-machine candidate has to build up his organization and to build up an organization overnight is an expensive proposition.

In the absence of statutes requiring publicity of campaign expenses it is difficult even to guess at what the cost of primary campaigns have been in the past. Here in Illinois and Chicago it is safe to say that the primary campaign expenses during recent years have been very large. As a typical example let us take the primary campaign of slightly over two years ago at which nominations were made for mayor and other city officers in Chicago.

Prior to this campaign there had never been any publication, either forced or voluntary, of any primary or general campaign funds in any part of Illinois, so far as I know. In the primary election referred to public sentiment demanded a publication of campaign receipts and expenditures with the result that at least two of the candidates, Charles E. Merriam and Edward F. Dunne, made complete and honest publications. Some candidates made partial publications while one refused to make any disclosures at all.

In a direct primary campaign, covering approximately two and a half months, there were contributions from all sources made to the Merriam campaign fund of $39,767. The disbursements made by the Merriam committee in this primary campaign were itemized as follows:

Stationery and Printing	$2035
Advertising in street cars and newspapers	2763
Music, bands and wagons for meetings	1474
Hall rent and other expense of meetings	2267
Salaries and headquarters expense	4885
Postage	2008
Ward headquarters and organization work—35 wards	2100
Lithographing and posting	4500
Young Men's Progressive Republican Club expense	415
Total	$22,451

Mr. Merriam was an anti-machine candidate and it was accordingly necessary for him to build up organizations in the various wards and precincts, a process which legitimately costs money. Nor did he have the advantage that the machine candidates had of the support of the organizations in the various wards.

It should be borne in mind that in each ward at the same time there were various candidates running for aldermanic nominations. Each one of these candidacies meant money collected and spent and where the aldermanic candidates were also the candidates of the organization, the campaigns they made and the money they spent were also for the advantage of the city machine primary candidates. There were no aldermanic candidates on the Merriam ticket.

In this same campaign John F. Smulski, who was the candidate for the Republican nomination of the Deneen-Busse machine, made a statement through his committee showing receipts of $9445, and expenditures of $11,673. It is understood that the Smulski committee also spent not less than $10 a precinct to man the polls on primary day which would involve about $13,000 additional which was not accounted for.

John R. Thompson another Republican candidate, backed by the Lorimer machine, announced that he had received no contributions from any source and that his disbursements had been $16,228. There was also evidence on election day that in Mr. Thompson's case probably an amount in the neighborhood of $26,000, which was not accounted for, was spent to man the polls in his interests. In considering the amounts spent by Merriam, Smulski and Thompson, respectively, it should be borne in mind that both Smulski and Thompson had powerful machine support and their campaigns covered only a few weeks while that of Merriam's extended over two months and a half.

On the Democratic side Edward F. Dunne was making an independent campaign against Carter H. Harrison, the candidate of the old city hall machine, and Andrew J. Graham was the candidate of Roger Sullivan. Mr. Dunne accounted for $10,869 received as against expenditures of $10,242.

Carter H. Harrison made no accounting for primary expenses, but it is known that he carried on an expensive campaign and it is safe to say that his disbursements were considerably in excess of those of Mr. Merriam.

No statement was made on behalf of Andrew J. Graham, whose campaign was the longest and most expensive of all. It was the current belief at the time that money was literally poured out in Mr. Graham's behalf. It is probably within the facts to say that $100,000 were spent by the Graham managers in this campaign.

As has already been suggested, in addition to the amounts spent in the mayoralty campaign there was considerable money spent in behalf of the minor candidates on the various tickets and in behalf of the various aldermanic candidates in the thirty-five wards of the city in all instances except on the Merriam ticket. It would be difficult to estimate what the amount would total, but it must have been very large.

It will have been seen that in the absence of a law requiring publicity of receipts and expenditures, it is impossible to give an accurate statement of the cost of such a primary campaign as the one above referred to, but probably the entire amount of money spent in this campaign was in the neighborhood of a quarter of a million of dollars, a tremendous amount, especially when it is considered that all this money was spent not to elect, but merely to give the people an opportunity to elect at a subsequent general election.

Of course there are many primary campaigns which are run on comparatively little money. The amount varies with the occasion and with the interest in the fight. If there is no contest, as when the machine is allowed to nominate by default, there is no need for large expenditures which can then be reserved until the general election as was the case when Fred A. Busse was elected mayor of Chicago somewhat over six years ago. In that year there was no direct election law on the statute books of Illinois. Mr. Busse was nominated by the combined efforts of the Lorimer and Deneen-Busse machines without opposition so that it cost no money to make a campaign for nomination. All the money collected was spent at the general election and more than a quarter of a million dollars was raised for Mr. Busse's campaign. It is not known what was spent in that campaign in behalf of Edward F. Dunne, Mr. Busse's opponent, but it was a small sum compared with the fortune contributed to put Mr. Busse over.

There is hardly any limit to the amount of money that can be legitimately spent in a political fight where an extended campaign of education is made. There is, of course, no limit at all to the amount of money that can be spent corruptly in a campaign. Full publicity of receipts and expenditures required by a statute carrying heavy penalties for non-compliance, would correct a good deal of the evil. It has also been suggested many times that a limitation of the amount that can be spent in behalf of any candidate would be a proper and salutary law. Personally I am inclined to doubt the wisdom of a limitation law, although there are many reasons that can be urged for it. Such a statute would undoubtedly be to the advantage of a political machine and would make it difficult, if not impossible, for an independent anti-machine candidate, who has to build up his own organization and conduct his own campaign of education to hope to compete successfully with a machine candidate.

HAROLD L. ICKES.[1]

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[1] Of the Chicago bar and chairman of the Cook County Progressive committee. Mr. Ickes has written this article out of an intimate knowledge of the facts, having been manager of the Merriam campaign. Although considerable time has elapsed since that event, the facts and figures have lost none of their value or significance.

COMMISSION GOVERNMENT FOR CITIES: ELECTION TO SPECIFIC OFFICE VS. ELECTION AT RANDOM

ELECTION to specific office is essential for consistency with the fundamental principle of commission government that the line of responsibility from member of the council to the people should be clear and sharp.

By election to specific office, the member of the council is in a position which he has agreed with the voters to take, and to which they have elected him, with all the facts in mind. He can, therefore, be held much more effectively responsible than if in a position, perhaps unwelcome to him, into which he has been forced by his colleagues.

2. It should conduce to harmony and attention to business in the council to have each member in a position from which the rest cannot depose him, in which he knows he must stay until the end of his term, and in which he must make good, if at all.

This does not, of course, prevent minor redistribution of duty under certain conditions by a vote, say, of all four of the other members.

3. Election to specific office enables a man to know in advance for what office he is running, and the voter to know to what he is electing him, something which should make standing for office much more attractive than otherwise to responsible citizens, and voting a more intelligent and responsible piece of work than otherwise. It should, therefore, materially reduce the chance of a mere "good fellow" getting elected to the Council; also to deter the ridiculously incompetent—though regarded good enough for a place in the council under the usual politics—from seeking a nomination.

4. Election to specific office is not open to the objection that the people should never elect experts, for there is no necessity that these men should be experts, but there is a necessity that they should be elected to a place in which they have an interest and for which the voters will consciously support them. The bonafide experts may still be appointed, as they should be.

5. Experience has already developed serious objection to the practice of election at random. Haverhill's misfortunes in the loss of a highly competent official in the council by his defeat by a less able but perhaps more popular person, through the voters not realizing what place in the council was at stake, led Lynn to adopt election to specific office. Grand Junction had already done so on general grounds; Oklahoma City, Salem, Mass., Denver and Colorado Springs have since done so. The commission

charter drafts of Bangor and South Portland, Me. and New Iberia, La., Springfield and Cambridge, Mass., all provide for election to specific office.

Colorado Springs modified a commission charter of some four years standing to introduce election to specific office (with preferential voting) in place of their previous system of election at random. This was done in April, 1913.

REASONS FOR ELECTION AT RANDOM

1. Election at random makes it unnecessary for candidates to have to get elected to a certain office, or to be lost from the council. To put the same thing in another way, if, under election to specific office, all the good nominees should happen to be running for one office, there couldn't be but one good man elected.
2. An inferior banker might be elected to the headship of the department of finance over a man with general experience in business, greatly his superior in actual fitness for the office.
3. It is the almost invariable practice of American commission governed cities to elect their councils at random, presumably for the two reasons just stated, and also, I believe, on account of their fear that it means an attempt to secure election of experts by the people.

SUMMARY

It seems to me the first point made above for election to specific office is unanswerable by anything that can be urged on the other side, and that that point, with the others, clearly outweighs what can be said against it. Any efficient volunteer citizens committee, at least where a good form of preferential ballot is in use like that of Denver should find it reasonably easy to induce into the field a supply of desirable candidates for each and every office. Besides, this difficulty is much reduced at all elections after the first for there should never be more than one or, at the most, two offices to fill at any one election after the first.

The fact that election "at random" was the universal rule till lately is of course not conclusive evidence in itself that it is the most expedient practice. If prevalence were the proper criterion, the case for the discredited double chamber system would have been unanswerable!

Those originating the proposed commission charter for Cambridge have been perfectly clear from the very first in their support of election to specific office, although it was the feature which met the most vigorous opposition in the large committee of citizens which finally went over the whole draft. That committee, however, after full discussion in which the opposition was most ably represented, finally voted overwhelmingly to stand for election to specific office. The idea of direct responsibility above mentioned, and that a man should know what office he is running for, and that the voters should know to what office they are electing him appeal strongly to most thoughtful citizens and seem likely to prevail over all objections.

This extract from an editorial in the *Engineering Record* (of New York) under date of June 7, 1913, is worth noting in connection with the topic of this paper:

> The Denver election of May 20 involved two matters of much interest to engineers—the participation of engineers as a body in the campaign and the favorable action on the Moffat tunnel proposal. The election was the first under the commission form recently adopted by Denver and was conducted along non-political lines. The local organization of the American Society of Civil Engineers therefore interested itself in the campaign, endorsing a civil engineer for the position of commissioner of improvements—the officer who has supervision of the board of public works. The candidate endorsed was elected.

It should be added that the winner here referred to was chosen out of a list of no less than twenty-three nominees for the place and, what is more, was high man among the six winners in a total field of 135 nominees. As the election was by the preferential system without a primary, his victory reflected the choice of the voters after a free and full expression of preference and thus was of highly exceptional significance.

It can hardly be doubted that the nomination to specific office (and the preferential ballot) was an important aid to this presumably excellent result.

To be sure, the nominee might have been induced to accept a nomination at random, might have been similarly endorsed and elected at random, and might have been finally landed by the council in the place of preference and for which he was best fitted. But each of these steps would have been hampered and the whole thing might well have been prevented by the uncertainties attending election at random. Particularly under these circumstances might a wholly nonpolitical organization of professional men of the highest standing have been effectively deterred from taking up an uncertain as well as unwonted step in the public behalf.

The following personal letter from a responsible and close observer of affairs in Salem (Mass.) under date of December 19, 1912 (*underlining* mine) gives some testimony from experience. It should be borne in mind that Salem retained the primary. Those who appreciate the value of the preferential ballot and the elimination of the primary have ground for belief that the Salem results might, by the more modern system, have been even better than below reported.

"I have felt ever since we started work on the Salem charter that this was the most satisfactory method of handling the problem, and the experience in our election in Salem Tuesday bore me out.

It has been the custom in Salem to vote for men for the board of aldermen *without regard to their fitness but merely upon their personal popularity*, and men have been elected without any regard whatsoever to the administrative work required of them as chairmen and members of the various sub-committees. Under our new charter this year the men were compelled to run for the specific positions which they wished to occupy, and *for the first time in my recollection the discussion in the campaign turned upon the qualifications of the men for offices for which they were running*, and the discussion was very general and the interest very keen. We were disappointed in the result so far as it affected the head of the ticket, but in every other case the man elected was a man who has had years of experience in just the sort of work expected of him, and whose record in such work has been good. Our city auditor, who has made a splendid record and is a very able man in financial matters was elected director of finance. A man who has been street commissioner for years, and probably the most successful one we ever had, was elected director of public works. A man who has been one of the overseers of the poor for years and a member of the board of health was elected director of public health, an office which combines supervision of both the health and poor departments. A man who has been in the lumber and building business for years and has shown considerable executive ability was elected director of public property. In every case, the men running against them had had no experience to speak of in the work of the positions, and the majorities of the successful candidates were overwhelming.

I personally feel that far better results will come every year by electing men in this way, and I know that in one or two of the cities along the Merrimac River now under commission government the mayors are considering an amendment to their charters to provide for this same thing, as they feel that the group method of elections is not proving satisfactory."

LEWIS JEROME JOHNSON.[1]

VOTERS' LEAGUES AND THEIR CRITICAL WORK[2]

IN A country village where each man knows his neighbor's parents and sat with him in Sunday school, the choice of candidates for public office is not embarrassed by ignorance of their character or qualifications. The elector's judgment may be cramped by prejudice, he may refuse support on principle to a free thinker or a man who does not paint his barn, but he has at least a fair chance of knowing by personal acquaintance whether John Doe has made or would make a competent selectman or poundmaster. The advocates of the short ballot have argued quite convincingly that this is far from true in the larger communities, the city and the state, and have pointed out a remedy in the concentration of attention upon fewer offices with more responsibility. But even were this beneficent plan put into execution, the voter might be misinformed or wholly uninstructed upon the experience and character of aspirants for public office. No one, I think, would maintain that partisan newspapers have been reserved in commenting upon the incomparable merits of their own candidates and the incredible misdemeanors of their rivals. Their vehemence is met with respect in inverse ratio, and among that portion of the electorate that can be influenced by information these contests in rhetoric effect but little. Indeed, under the long ballot that lingers with us, were this invective to pass for argument, only opinion as to the principal candidate would be affected. The names of those who bid for less conspicuous honors are passed over in ignorance and silence; yet, while the offices they seek are less important to the community as a whole they touch much more nearly the daily life of the citizens at home. The voter, in a quandary, looks for some reliable guide that he can credit with impartiality and sound judgement. Slowly and with much travail such an organ is evolving in the shape of a civic association which undertakes the investigation of candidates, reports upon their records, and without regard to party bases recommendations upon this evidence.

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[1] Professor Johnson is a member of the Harvard engineering faculty. He has for years given close and thoughtful attention to city problems and especially to commission government and preferential voting of which he is a strong advocate. Several years ago he was foremost in the movement for a new charter for Cambridge.

[2] See article on "Chicago Voters' League," by Frank H. Scott, in the *Proceedings of the National Municipal League*, 1903.

When corruption in a city council or a legislature becomes so gross as to break the back of patience, mass meetings appoint committees of one hundred and at their instigation permanent organizations are erected to act as proctors for the public interest. The final and effective instrument is usually an executive committee of a dozen members, more or less, chosen from widely known and reputable citizens of every shade of political opinion. That is in brief the history of the Municipal Voters' League, Chicago, and may stand for that of nearly all such organizations.

There are two factors in government, the law and the officer. Some civic associations devote attention primarily to the correction of the one, some to the improvement of the other. It is not surprising, however, that there appears to be a tendency for these nonpartisan associations to concentrate upon securing better men, since better men can be relied upon to enact better laws or to enforce poor laws judiciously, whereas the best of laws is impotent under a dishonest or incompetent administration.

To secure good men in office in the first place demands intelligent and fearless criticism, and to furnish this to the public is no light enterprise for an executive committee. It is an awesome thing coolly to print an estimate of a candidate's personality. It is not difficult to rehearse his training or point the lack of it, but to publish its mature opinion on his character and temperament imposes heavy responsibility upon a civic body. There must be honesty in the committee, of course, as well as earnestness, diligence and rare judgment. That these have not been lacking is demonstrated by the fact that though such estimates have been published with startling frankness, to the best of our information, no candidate has seen it worth his while to sue for damages in libel.

In the report of the Minneapolis Voters' League the following appears: "Put in the briefest language possible, the real fundamental tests of aldermanic service are honesty, intelligence and effectiveness, with ability to see clearly where the public interests lie and the courage and independence to serve on the side of the public against private or special interests." Of course such qualifications are hard to ascertain by any scientific gauge. Some reports on candidates are more amiable and tolerant than others; some leave an image so shadowy and pallid that the reader cannot quite understand this man is recommended or disapproved. But many of the pictures are painted with poster-like vividness. A man may be praised as a legislator of "foresight, industry and courageous initiative," or he may be remembered as a "rubber-stamp," "absurd" or "vicious." Frequently candidates for the same office seem equally satisfactory and a league is glad to recommend them all, or when all seem equally hopeless little comment is vouchsafed and it refuses to discriminate. For example, consider the candidates for alderman in the first ward of Denver as they were mentioned last May in the voters' directory of that city's civic league:

> *Archie Bloom* (Rep.). Residence 1100 Walnut; clerk in grocery business; young, single; never held office; untried.
>
> *James P. Coates* (Dem.). Saloonkeeper at residence, 842 Lorimer; present incumbent; machine alderman; undesirable.
>
> *Eugene Madden* (Cit.), Residence 1047 9th St.; saloonkeeper at 1140 Lorimer; reported never held office.

There are times, too, when a league frankly chooses the lesser of two evils as in Minneapolis last September, C. B. Wadell was preferred as a county commissioner. Perhaps it is worth while to restate the comment of the voters' league upon him and his rival as it was published before the primaries in the Minneapolis *Journal* for September 12, 1912:

> *C. B. Waddell*—Market gardener. Resides in St. Louis Park. Age 52. Lived in district thirty-two years. Finishing first term on county board. Made a fairly good start and offered hope of becoming a useful official, but his later record is disappointing. In the past two years he has gone over completely to the combine. Too willing to trade his independence for patronage and improvements in his district. He was the key to the situation in the board. It was in his power by his vote in the organization to have made it a force for effective business administration. He chose the

other course, and should rightly bear his share of the responsibility for the present unhappy condition in the board affairs. He is not entitled to renomination, but is preferable to four years more of Andrew Smith.

Andrew J. Smith—Farmer. Resides at Brooklyn Centre. Age 68. Lived in district fifty-eight years. Civil War veteran. Served two terms on the county board ending 1908. Member of most of the combines of his day and a typical representative of the old school political spoilsman. He had largest opportunities for usefulness, but was interested chiefly in keeping numerous members of the Smith family on the county pay-roll, furnishing supplies, road repair and contract work, etc. Distinctly not qualified for further service on the board.

There are other criteria besides personal reputation and voting record, by which civic associations may seek to judge the qualification of a candidate. The Municipal Voters' League of Chicago draws up a little platform declaring in some dozen articles what constitutes honesty, independence and efficiency in an alderman, and this each candidate for that office is invited to adopt as a part of his promise to his constituents. His answer to this invitation is printed with his record in the election bulletin of the league. The Municipal League of Buffalo last Autumn asked each legislative candidate[3] to pledge support to a proposition for a referendum to the citizens of Buffalo on the matter of a new charter. Twenty-seven out of thirty-six signed that pledge; the recusants were carefully remembered in the League's reports.

It is a common practice is estimating the legislative career of a candidate for reëlection to select some few measures wherein to the mind of the committee the moral issue was well defined and using these as touchstones of the candidate's loyalty to public interest. For example the Buffalo association in a broadside to the voters of the second assembly district took as tests six measures considered in the last session of the legislature and recommended the present incumbent on the ground that he had been found satisfactory on all these questions.

Associations send their bulletins generally to all applicants as well as members. Some, like the Citizens' Union of New York City, actively distribute "literature" in appropriate districts. The work of this organization, which is one of the oldest of its kind, is worthy of some special mention. It maintains an expensive legislative bureau at Albany, reports the bills introduced by each assemblyman and senator from New York City, and his vote on all measures that affect the city's interests. The summary, which each legislator is invited to criticize, is finally published with a short estimate of each man's service. This is probably the most complete legislative record of this kind in the country, and is certainly the most convenient hand-book of the legislation of the session published in the state. The union undertakes much the same work in connection with the board of aldermen and has done much to revive interest in this ancient body.[4]

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[3] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. i, p. 503.

Not only in these annual reports does the Citizen's Union express its criticism on the work of representatives, but likewise in its paper, *The Searchlight,* which appears bi-monthly, it comments on their accomplishment or lack of it. Candidates without official experience as well as those who stand for reëlection are investigated, and when no nominee seems adequate the union sometimes names candidates of its own, taking on the function of a party, as when in 1901 it nominated and elected Seth Low as mayor of New York.

With civic organizations that seek to influence legislation more directly than by a criticism of the legislators, however, too much campaign activity has been found to be embarrassing. The City Club of New York formerly published estimates of candidates for the legislature couched in language that left little room for complaint on the ground of vagueness. It published its last report on candidates in 1908. "Dry Dollar" Sullivan was introduced as an "associate of thieves" and a typical New York tough, "Pat" McCarren found himself described as "a scoundrel" and "wholly unfit for office," Senator Stillwell was treated to some darksome pages of his professional history as a Westchester lawyer. After election in which the Tammany ticket was successful, when the secretary went to Albany he observed a curious reticence on the part of these gentlemen to coöperate in any legislation desired by the City Club. They were in no mood for argument. They remembered the Club's little directory of candidates and set all their powerful influence against any measure it had to propose. Believing, then, that it was better to work as amicably as possible with the servants who were given it, the function of formal criticism of candidates was abandoned and the club now confines its attention chiefly to legislation in the city or that enacted for the city by the state. It is "not in politics and it refrains strictly from any participation in nominations and elections even in municipal campaigns." The removal of dishonest or incompetent officials it still regards as a function proper and expedient. In 1908 it preferred charges based on the report of the commissioners of accounts against John F. Ahearn, president of the borough of Manhattan, who was removed after a protracted trial. The club also aided by providing counsel and other wise in securing the removal of borough presidents Haffen of Bronx and Gresser of Queens.

The executive committee of the Municipal Association of Portland, Oregon, for some time seriously considered the recall of District Attorney Cameron on the ground of inefficiency and unfaithfulness. The election would have been called but that no suitable man could be found willing to undertake a campaign for that important and responsible office. The committee also attempted to induce capable and trustworthy men to offer their names as candidates for various places in the general election, with very little success. "While many of them," the secretary writes, "are willing to serve without pay, they are not willing to be subjected to the unjust suspicion and criticism they must frequently bear." It may be said that it is in just this connection that committees of criticism play a very useful part. It is by such honest, competent and self-respecting citizens who are prevailed to make the sacrifice to enter public service that the "well done" of a non-partisan civic league published deliberately and distributed at large at the close of the official term, is most appreciated. The association with its "record" is not only useful as an avenger to strike the faithless, but likewise as a judge who offers high reward for service well performed. The salaries of public office are not alluring, and it is scarcely reasonable to expect men who value their reputation to engage to defend the public interest against the many private suitors who will hesitate at no threat to cow him down and no calumny to avenge their disappointment, unless he knows that there is some body of citizens, however small, who, freed from party rancor and possessed of unusual experience and intelligence, view his work with sympathy and understanding and stand ready to commend him publicly when his term is finished.

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[4] See National Municipal Review, vol. i, p. 136.

One of the most hopeful signs in present politics is that, judging from the reports of these associations, the ancient policy of passing the office around from hand to hand finds fewer advocates with each succeeding year. It is coming to be realized not only that the emoluments of public office should not be used as alms to tide over a loyal partisan who has met with business failure, but that between two men of equal probity and effectiveness, the one with some experience has always the advantage. "Permanent tenure of office," says the *Municipal Bulletin* of Cleveland for May, 1912, "is much to be desired. A change should be made only when the good of the service demands it." "Of two otherwise good candidates," runs the report of the Municipal League of Buffalo, published on October 20, 1912, "the one who has well served in the office is recommended in order that the county may have the benefit of his experience."

Nearly all of the associations which examine the records of candidates and make recommendations based thereupon are located in urban districts where such service is most welcome. But since they concern themselves in legislation only with that which affects their own locality, there is place for a like organ of inspection in the interest of the people of the state at large. In New York State this function has been assumed by the Legislative Voters Association with an executive committee of eight representative citizens from all parts of the state besides a secretary and a treasurer. From its headquarters in Albany it watches the progress of general legislation, publishes reports and comments in its *Legislative News*, which appears "monthly or oftener," and is sent to every quarter of the state. At the close of the session it prints a summary of the conduct of each legislator on the most important bills considered, though it does not hazard the pithy character sketches that enliven the pages of many city league reports. In rural counties this service is less indispensable and is more seldom undertaken. As an example of what can be done, however, the Oberlin College Civic Club has published its first annual report on the candidates for office in Lorain County, Ohio. With the valued counsel of Professor Geiser the Club prepared a careful report which speaks with firmness and discrimination. It is difficult to see how students could come more intimately into touch with the personal element in government than by such an investigation and it is to be hoped that this example will recommend itself to other college clubs.[5]

It is interesting now to ask whether or not all this activity produces real results. By the settled friends of candidates the criticisms are received of course with delight when they are favorable and with derision or resentment when they are not. But do they attract the attention of the electorate at large and do they actually exert influence upon the result? In the case of the recommendations of the Oberlin College Civic Club every one was followed with one unimportant exception. Secretary Fesler, of the Municipal Association of Cleveland, writes as to the result of the primaries last spring, "In only one instance when we recommended the nomination of a candidate did our recommendation fail to carry. That instance was the nomination of one of the Democratic candidates for commissioner, and the cause of his defeat was the fact that he lived in a remote part of the county and was not well known. In every case where we said a candidate 'should be defeated,' or said 'not recommended,' these candidates received a small vote." The Citizens' Union speaks thus of a campaign: "All candidates on the Democratic ticket supported by the Union were elected. The only Republicans elected were candidates supported by the Union, except where the Union was neutral." This is, of course, somewhat equivocal. Other arguments than those of the Citizens' Union will prevail to secure the election of Tammany representatives, but considered year by year the work undertaken by this organization years ago and now taken up by many others is telling and effective.

In closing we may quote an editorial comment from the *New Orleans Item* for July 13, 1912: "This method of making public each year, prior to elections, the records of the legislators, many of whom seek reëlection, has proved in the past a great factor in retiring ward politicians, assemblymen of an unsavory character. To brand a man as 'not very attentive to legislative duties' and to show up in black and white where he voted against every important issue that affected his constituents, which they wished passed, but in which he yielded to the commands of party bosses, is vitriolic campaign literature which no amount of buncombe or excuses can wipe out."

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[5] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. i, p. 506.

DIXON RYAN FOX.[1]

ADULT EDUCATION IN NEW YORK CITY[2]

NEW YORK CITY has municipal departments of which its residents have no reason to feel proud, but this does not apply to the public lecture bureau of the department of education. New York's free lecture system is the admiration of every person who comes in contact with it. There is a continual expansion and improvement in the system, and the present course is no exception. Last year lectures were delivered in 173 lecture centers distributed throughout the various boroughs of the city of New York. A staff of 696 lecturers spoke on 1746 different topics before 5573 audiences. The total attendance was 1,000,190, an average of 179 per lecture.

Getting its start in 1888, when a bill, entitled "an act to provide for lectures for working men and working women," was passed in the legislature and approved by the governor on June 9, the public lecture system is now a monument to the genius of the man who originated it. In 1901 the public lectures were extended to all five boroughs of the greater city, and since that time the scope of the lectures has been gradually enlarged to include all subjects of the college and university curriculum.

To discuss the free lecture system of New York without mentioning Dr. Henry M. Leipziger, the supervisor, would be like a history of France in which there would be found no mention of Napoleon. Dr. Leipziger is the general who has made adult education a success. It is his creation. The lectures were placed in his charge at the end of the second year, when the attendance had not indicated the popularity of this form of instruction which the committee had hoped for and when it had been decided to make the public lectures a special subject for supervision.

The term public lecture system does not give an accurate impression of the true character of the great educational work that is being done. Dr. Leipziger would have it named the "Institute for Adult Education," for that is what it is. The purpose of the lectures is not to amuse and entertain, but to instruct and uplift, and during the last year more serious courses were given than ever before. The spirit in the system is the spirit of the school and of the university.

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[1] Columbia University.

[2] This whole subject of adult education is considered at length in Edward J. Ward's volume *Social Centers*, published by D. Appleton and Company in the National Municipal League series.

This growing institution offers in part a solution of the immigrant problem, for its purpose is to educate the immigrant and to provide for his introduction into civic life, being in this respect a step in advance of the public school, which waits for the second generation. Typical of the lectures to immigrants is one given in the Italian language to Italians on the subject "What the Public Lectures can do for the Italians and Why Every Italian Should Learn the English Language," or one in Yiddish attended by a thousand immigrants, on "What Constitutes Good American Citizenship." Lectures in German are given by visiting professors who come from Europe to lecture at Columbia University.

A course of twenty-eight lectures given last year on "Principles and Practice of Electrical Engineering," by W. Wallace Ker, was attended by engineers, mechanics and automobile men, who were regular in attendance, and many of whom came from a long distance and after a hard day's work to attend the course. Professor Guthrie of the College of the City of New York gave a course of thirty lectures on American history.

Dr. Leipziger hopes to make it possible to secure a degree from a university through the medium of the free lectures. There will not, of course, be invented a short cut to knowledge, but a degree may be had after a reasonable number of years of study have elapsed. His plans include a possible future development of the reading in connection with the lectures into a correspondence school, and he does not regard it as at all utopian that courses of study graded to the various capacities of student auditors could be arranged. In his report to the board of education, Dr. Leipziger said: "This city contains a number of institutions of higher learning. A federation of our colleges and universities could be made possible, and by coöperation with the public lecture system a correspondence school under the aegis of this great union could be established. This would greatly increase the influence of these great institutions of learning, and through the public lecture system bring them more closely in touch with the people!" What a colossal idea! Such a system, the supervisor explains, will require a staff of regular teachers of adults who will make it their primary work and not a secondary object as is the case now.

Examinations are now held at the conclusion of every course and a quiz at the end of each lecture, and this feature is spreading to other lecture centers. Because of the intense interest manifested by the adults in many of the topics discussed, this quiz sometimes develops into a general discussion. Such discussions divide themselves into two general classes, educational and political. Dr. Leipziger proposes, therefore, to have two types of lectures, one type of a large and commanding character, to be given in the larger lecture halls, which will attract audiences from all parts of the city, and to maintain in increasing number other courses of lectures which are adapted to the needs and desires of local audiences.

"I am an evangelist in my particular department," said Dr. Leipziger recently in discussing his work of preaching the gospel of the wider use of the school house. "What a pity it is," he continued, "that buildings which are the property of the public should not be open to the public. Why not let these centers be used more than the six hours a day required for the education of the children? There is, for instance, no reason why political meetings should not be held in the school house. The discussion of public questions in such a forum would be of great benefit. Never at any time in the history of this country has the public been so alert, so mobile, so inquisitive. The people are inquiring into the fundamentals upon which society depend."

It should be a matter for congratulation on the part of Americans that the public lecture system is an American idea in education. It is just being introduced into Europe through Paris. Until very recently New York was the only city in this country which recognized adult education as an integral part of its educational scheme. During the past year, however, inquiries came from all parts of the world, including China and Japan, with regard to the best means of establishing a similar system in those countries. Everywhere it is being recognized that education does not end with the elementary school. Milwaukee and San Francisco are the only American cities in the west that have begun the development of a similar system in connection with the public schools. The state universities, however, have taken over the idea and are branching out with extension courses. Many cities throughout each state are thus given the benefit of lectures by eminent professors in the universities.

Although only a few cities have adopted free public lectures as an integral part of the public school system, the work of adult education has been taken up by other institutions. In many cities the lecture courses have not yet passed through the woman's club stage, where each lecture is a social event and where the lecturer is expected to amuse and entertain more than to educate. The universities and other educational institutions in and near Chicago have arranged interesting lecture courses for the practical benefit of those who can not avail themselves of the more restricted educational opportunities. The University of Chicago last fall featured a course of lectures on the problems of a modern city, in which some of the most prominent educators in the country expressed their views. Lectures on modern city problems are advertised all over the country for this winter.

A comparison of the system developed in New York City with the irregular lectures in connection with university extension work confirms the correctness of Dr. Leipziger's assertion that the latter, because of the limitations which their relations to scholarship and higher education impose, can never produce entirely satisfactory results. In order to introduce adult education which will really reach the masses, says the founder of the New York system, the cities must open their schoolhouses for public lectures, make them free, and make them a special object for supervision under the boards of education.

Oliver Hoyem.

NOTES AND EVENTS

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I. GOVERNMENT AND ADMINISTRATION

The Minneapolis Charter.—For many years Minneapolis has been making an effort to secure a new form of city government. The present one in many respects is archaic. The administration of city affairs is divided between the city council and a number of boards selected independently by the people or by appointment. Most of the departments of the government, however, are administered by committees of the council, which are responsible to the council as a whole. For instance, the fire department is administered by the fire committee of the council. Thus, responsibility is divided among twenty-six men representing thirteen wards, and the burden is easily shifted. The control of the streets, except as to permanent improvements such as sewer and water mains, is handled separately in each ward and is under the jurisdiction of a street commissioner who is responsible to the aldermen of his ward. This street commissioner is very often a local political boss. It is not unusual to find one side of a street where the ward boundaries come together sprinkled and properly cleaned and the other side much neglected.

Again and again have boards of freeholders spent months in drafting a new charter only to meet defeat at the hands of the people because of lack of interest or an organized opposition which has found the four-sevenths requirement of all votes cast at the election for the passage of the charter to be its chief asset.

Progress and change in municipal administrative government, however, seem to be in the air. Commission and federal charters have been adopted in many cities which have given the citizens thereof a part at least of the relief which they have sought. Because of this added interest in a better municipal administration in Minneapolis as well as elsewhere, a group of citizens again had the courage to prepare a charter for submission to the people of this city. For nearly a year this commission of fifteen men has given its best thought to the task.

About June 1 a proposed draft of the charter was presented. Several members of the commission recognized that expert advice upon many sections of this charter would greatly strengthen it and it was suggested, therefore, that the Minneapolis Civic and Commerce Association should secure the best obtainable assistance in making this charter as nearly perfect as was possible. This association immediately secured the services of Messrs. Henry Bruère, A. R. Hatton, B. A. Rastall, Delos F. Wilcox, and Clinton Rogers Woodruff, for a careful analysis of the charter. At the same time the association appointed a committee of seven of its members, recognized as students of the subject, to lend its assistance to the commission.

Each one of the experts was requested to make a detailed analysis of the charter and to lay special emphasis upon those provisions with which he was especially familiar. The final reports were carefully studied by the Association committee and made the basis of its report, which was then passed on to the charter commission. Every suggestion made by each of these experts was given the most careful consideration by the members of the board of freeholders, and a considerable portion of the suggestions was incorporated in the final draft of the charter, which was submitted July 16.

The great value of securing the best counsel obtainable with reference to the various provisions of such a document is illustrated by the improvement which resulted in the original draft of the charter as a result of the adoption of these suggestions. While the charter is still one which could unquestionably be improved in many respects, it is the feeling of those in Minneapolis who have studied this document and who are familiar with similar charters which have been drafted elsewhere, that this is one of the best documents which has ever been proposed.

The powers which are granted in the charter are very extensive and confer upon the city authority to undertake all matters of municipal concern. These powers are in form similar to those granted in the charter recently adopted in Cleveland. The government of the city is vested in a commission of seven, consisting of a mayor, city comptroller, and commissioner of public works, of public utilities and of charity and correction, and seven members of the school and library board. Every candidate must designate the office for which he is running and election is to that office. The mayor is paid a salary of $6000 and the other commissioners $5000 each.

The charter provides that elective officers are subject to recall upon a petition signed by 25 per cent of the entire number of votes cast for mayor at the last preceding municipal election. The initiative and referendum are also provided for. Under the initiative provision an ordinance may be presented to the council upon a petition of 2 per cent of the voters and if not adopted then after an additional 8 per cent is obtained the ordinance must be submitted to the vote of the people. The administration of city affairs is divided as follows:

1. Division of public safety: department of police, department of fire, department of architecture and building inspection.

2. Division of finance and taxation: department of accounts, department of city treasurer, department of city assessor.

3. Division of public works: department of streets and bridges, department of sewers, department of street operation.

4. Division of public health: department of hospitals, department of sanitation, department of communicable diseases, department of vital statistics and publicity, department of laboratories.

5. Division of parks and public grounds: department of construction and maintenance, department of forestry and park decorations, department of recreation and amusements.

6. Division of public utilities: department of waterworks, department of lighting, department of transportation and communication.

7. Division of charity and correction: department of correction, department of charity and social service.

Subject directly to the authority of the council, but not assigned to any of the foregoing divisions, there shall be the following departments: department of law, department of records, department of purchase and supplies.

It is provided that the council may employ technical experts of recognized ability when needed for any special purpose. The officers of the civil service board are appointed by the council for terms of six years in rotation. Their authority and duties are extensive. The charter provided that the unclassified service shall include:

1. All officers elected by the people.

2. All members of boards or commissions appointed by the council.

3. Superintendents, principals, supervisors, and teachers in the public school system of the city.

4. The librarian of the public library.

5. Special counsel employed by the city.

6. All heads of departments, except those of the departments of records, and purchase and supplies.

7. The private secretary of each commissioner.

8. Special technical experts whose appointment is authorized by section 39.

Several of the experts employed as well as members of the board of freeholders favored the placing of a larger number of positions in the classified service, but it was urged, possibly with considerable wisdom, that the inclusion of other offices in the classified service might increase the opposition to the charter. The charter further provides that the heads of departments shall be appointed by the commissioner in charge of the division in which the department belongs, but that a certificate of this appointment shall be filed with the civil service board and that the board shall then make a careful inquiry into the qualifications of the nominee. If the board does not certify to the competency of the nominee within thirty days, the appointment shall be considered void.

The civil service section further provides that only the person standing highest in a certified list shall be appointed to the vacancy. The original draft provided that the appointing officer might select one of the three highest, but the uniform opinion of the experts upon this point resulted in the change. The civil service board is also charged with the duty of investigation as to the efficiency of the service in all departments. It is the evident intent that this board shall act as an efficiency board as well as an examining board.

The charter provides also for the submission of an annual budget by the heads of departments to the city comptroller, and the basis of this budget is provided in detail. The charter provides that upon receipt of these estimates the city comptroller shall arrange for their publication in convenient pamphlet form, with his own recommendations and comments, and that these pamphlets shall be supplied to any citizen upon application and to city officials.

The chapter on franchises caused the largest discussion and it was upon this chapter that the greatest difference of opinion existed. A feeling of one group of members of the board was that the specification of conditions of a franchise should be left to the determination of the council granting the franchise. The feeling of another group was that the charter should specify in detail as to the basis upon which a franchise might be granted, and that comparatively little authority should be left to the council as to the terms of franchises. The latter plan modified considerably was finally adopted. It provides that no public service franchise shall be granted except by an ordinance approved at a general or special election by a majority of the qualified electors of the city voting thereon. No public service franchise may be renewed prior to four years before the date of expiration. No perpetual franchise shall ever be granted and no franchise shall be granted for more than twenty-five years. Every corporation rendering any public service in the city under a public service franchise is required to furnish annually a detailed financial report and the city is given authority to make examination of the books and affairs of such corporation. The charter specifically provides that in determining a valuation for the fixing of rates no allowance shall be made for franchise value, good will, earning power or going concern value. Every franchise granted also must provide either for an automatic regulation of rates or must reserve to the city the right to regulate rates at intervals of not more than five years. Every franchise must provide that at the expiration of the grant or at intervals of not more than five years the city shall have the right of purchase. The city must also be given the right to regulate the service and extensions.

The charter also gives the city the power of eminent domain, including public utilities, and power to make all special assessments and charges for local improvements.

The common criticism of the charter is that it goes too largely into detail. However, it seems in general to provide for a city administration which is in accord with the best thought of the day, and is only about one-fourth the length of the charter and board acts which it is intended to supersede.

The election for its adoption was set for September 30.

Howard Strong.[1]

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Municipal Home Rule in Ohio; Supreme Court Upholds Cleveland Charter.—The supreme court of Ohio on August 26, by a vote of three to three sustained the constitutionality of the election provisions of Cleveland's new charter. The sections under consideration provide for nomination by petition only, for a non-partisan ballot, and the preferential system of voting. The legal question arose over the conflict between the state election law and the election provisions of the new charter. The state law provides for a partisan primary in September. The secretary of state ruled that the state law was paramount and that the charter provisions do not supersede the state law even in local municipal elections. The board of elections was instructed to proceed with the holding of partisan primaries. The city brought mandamus proceedings to prevent the misapplication of funds for that purpose. The lower courts overruled the demurrer to the petition of the defendant and judgment was rendered in favor of the city. The case was then carried to the supreme court.

The six judges, though on vacation, agreed to hear the case at once. Attorney-General Hogan and his assistant Robert M. Morgan represented the state, and assistant city solicitor John N. Stockwell and Mayor Newton D. Baker represented the city. Long and exhaustive briefs were submitted by both sides and an oral hearing was granted. The attention of the entire state was focused upon the case for it was to determine how broadly the home rule amendment will be interpreted.

The supreme court refused to reverse the order of the lower court granting the injunction, but no written opinion was handed down at that time. Justice Johnson was selected to prepare the majority opinion and Justice Shank the dissenting opinion.

The city contended in its brief:

a. That the provisions of the charter supersede the general law in all matters pertaining strictly to local government.

b. That the right to frame a charter and exercise thereunder all powers of local self-government includes the right to prescribe the method of nominating and electing municipal officers.

c. That the "powers of local self-government" mean not only proprietary or private powers, but all local governmental powers as well.

d. That the method of nomination and election of officials is not the exercise of a police power.

e. That the charter provisions are not in conflict with the provisions of the constitution which require that nominations "shall be made at direct primary elections, or by petition as provided by law," because the charter provisions are "law" in the meaning of the constitution.

The state on the other hand contended:

a. That the city has and can have no jurisdiction over state appointed election officers.

b. That the city has no jurisdiction over the subject of nominations and elections because they are matters of general and not municipal nature.

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[1] Secretary Minneapolis Civic and Commerce Association.

c. That nomination regulations constitute an exercise of police power in which matters the state law is supreme.

d. That the constitution itself commits the subject matter of nominations and elections to the general assembly.

Attorney-General Hogan made much of the old argument that if the city were sustained in its contention, there would be established an "imperium in imperio" in Ohio.

The full written opinion of the court will be awaited with more than ordinary interest by the cities of the state, because in most of them where charters have been adopted under the home rule amendment, provision is made for a nominating system different from the requirements of the state law.

MAYO FESLER.[1]

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Commission Government.—*In Pennsylvania.* As the last issue of the REVIEW went to press, Governor Tener of Pennsylvania signed the so-called Clark bill providing commission government in a mandatory form for all third class cities and in a permissive form for boroughs of over 10,000 population. By this act the following cities, with populations as indicated, will come under the commission system without referendum: Reading, 96,071; Wilkes-Barre, 67,105; Erie, 66,525; Harrisburg, 64,186; Altoona, 52,127; Johnstown, 55,482; Allentown, 51,913; McKeesport, 42,604; York, 44,750; Williamsport, 31,860; New Castle, 36,280; Easton, 28,532; Chester, 38,537; Lebanon, 19,240; Bradford, 14,454; Hazleton, 25,452; Carbondale, 17,040; Oil City, 15,657; Pittston, 16,267; Meadville, 12,780; Titusville, 8533; Franklin, 9767; and Corry, 5991.

On July 30, Beaver Falls voted to become a third class city and *ipso facto* to come under the Clark law. An election for the same purpose was held at Homestead on July 29, but the proposition was defeated. Petitions for the submission of the act are being circulated in many of the eligible boroughs.

A. M. Fuller, president of the Allied Civic Bodies on Commission Government, recently addressed a communication to the third class cities concerning the operation of the law. A point of special interest brought out by this statement is that the members of the second and succeeding councils in the various cities will not be paid the statutory salaries, but will receive such compensation as is fixed by ordinance. This, Mr. Fuller points out, makes possible the reduction of the salaries of the mayor and council to a nominal figure. The money thus saved may be devoted to the salary of a city manager, although no mention of such officer is made in the act itself.

Village manager for Chicago suburb. The popularity of the city manager plan grows apace. The village of River Forest, one of the suburbs of Chicago, is governed by a board of six trustees and a president, and until recently the various departments of the working organization reported directly to the board. The system, however, was found to be unbusiness-like and made very heavy drafts upon the leisure time of the trustees. It was recognized that the organization must have continuous supervision by a responsible head. A village manager was therefore appointed to fulfill this function. Considerable publicity was given to this decision. In consequence, some seventy applications for the position were received from men of varied training and experience residing in many parts of the country. Personal interviews were given by the president or members of the board to about forty of the applicants, and from this number four were selected to be individually interviewed by the board in executive session. The qualifications to be looked for in the appointee were carefully considered by the board, and while engineering knowledge and experience were given due weight, administrative and executive ability were deemed of first importance.

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[1] Secretary of the Civic League of Cleveland.

The ordinance creating the position provides that the general superintendent shall have

> general authority and supervision of all the affairs of said village and all of the work of said village under the supervision and direction of the president and board of trustees; he shall follow up the orders and directions of the board of trustees, see that the same are properly served and executed without delay, receive and refer to the proper persons the correspondence on behalf of the village and shall be the proper person to whom complaints as to the public service shall be made, and shall have power to hear and adjust the same; it shall be his duty to make reports from time to time to the president and board of trustees of the conditions of the public service in said village and the public work going on therein, and of all matters coming before him which require by law the action of the president and board of trustees; he shall also make recommendations from time to time to the president and board of trustees, recommending improvements in the public service and municipal affairs, and upon such other subjects that should come before the president and board for consideration; he shall also have general charge and supervision of the work of the officers and departments of the village.

Charter trouble in Wichita. A well informed correspondent in Wichita has analyzed for the writer the causes of the trouble which is arising in that city under the commission form of government, to which considerable publicity has been recently given in the press throughout the country. The general fault found with the plan is that it is expensive, and that so far from getting rid of the politicians, politics is played as much as under the councilmanic form. It is claimed, for instance, that there are five different governments at the city hall—the mayor and each of the four commissioners; that each has a special department, and in order to make a showing, each spends city funds; that if each did not have to make a showing to be reëlected, certain expensive operations would not have to be undertaken.

It seems also that there is a strong objection to giving the same five officials authority to enact ordinances and to enforce their own wishes, and that this feature of the commission plan has allowed personal opinion to get into ordinances, causing at times a great deal of unfavorable agitation.

It is pointed out specifically that a certain man who had been defeated three times by the people was able to get an appointment to a responsible position under four different mayors, though but one of them wanted him.

The Wichita commission has recently voted $88,000 in bonds to cover current deficiencies.

Continued charter activity in Ohio.—Cleveland. On July 1, Cleveland, the first of the Ohio cities to take advantage of the home-rule amendment,[1] adopted its first charter by a decisive majority.

Charter defeats. On July 15, three Ohio cities, Salem, Elyria and Canton voted down charters which were based on the general theory of commission government. The defeat was especially decisive in Canton. The plan under consideration in Elyria was the city manager type and the vote stood 957 to 801, the result turning upon the adverse vote in two election precincts. On July 22, Youngstown turned down a "city manager" charter by a vote of 5984 to 2973. This was not unexpected, as the Youngstown *Vindicator,* a powerful Democratic newspaper, consistently opposed the charter both as a whole and in detail. The result of course leaves Youngstown outside the pale of the home rule cities as under a recent decision of the supreme court no city may enjoy the home rule provisions of the constitution except by adopting a charter.

Norwood on August 19, and Akron on August 29 defeated charters embodying the commission plan.

Dayton. The new city charter described in full on p. 639 of this issue was adopted on August 13 by a vote approximately of 13,217 to 6,042.

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[1] See National Municipal Review, vol. ii, pp. 472–473.

More charters in the making. The Youngstown defeat, however, did not act as a damper upon the comissioners in other cities, and at the present moment action is about to be taken in two of them upon city manager charters.

At a recent election Sandusky, Ohio, instructed its commission to draw up a charter upon city manager lines. The ticket elected in this city was the one put up by the Municipal League.

Cincinnati, on July 29, elected a charter commission of a moderately progressive complexion. This was the ticket headed by Walter A. Knight and put before the people by the Citizens' Charter Committee.

In opposition to the successful ticket was the one supported by Rev. Herbert S. Bigelow who had been conducting many public meetings among the labor unions in an effort to consolidate the labor vote in favor of municipal ownership and other radical issues. There was also in the campaign a rather strong movement in favor of retaining the existing charter or rather operation under the Ohio code.

The Springfield, Ohio, Charter. A real contribution to charter literature is the new document put out by the commission in Springfield and particularly that portion which has to do with the statement of the general powers of the municipal corporation. It has been customary in American cities, due largely to the tendency of the courts to limit the powers of the city within the narrowest confines, to set down the municipal powers in the charter in the most detailed terms. So far as the writer's knowledge goes, this is the practically universal custom. The Springfield commission, however, broke away from the precedent completely, and if its statement will stand the test of court interpretation, the charter is certainly to be commended both for its brevity of form and for the latitude which it gives to the city in the exercise of municipal functions. The statement of powers as set forth in section 1 is as follows:

> It [the city] shall have and may exercise all powers which now or hereafter it would be competent for this charter specifically to enumerate as fully and completely as though said powers were specifically enumerated herein, and no enumeration of particular powers by this charter shall be held to be exclusive.

The charter also, by virtue of section 84 adopts the general laws of the state applicable to municipalities in so far as not inconsistent with the charter and subject to ordinances of the city commission hereafter to be enacted. The president of the commission writes in support of its position that there can be no question of the effect of this simple method of defining the city's powers and that it feels sure of its safety and propriety by reason of the following considerations:

> The municipality has no authority to prescribe its own powers. Upon the adoption of the charter the city would have, by virtue of the constitution, all powers of local self-government except as limited by the constitution itself. The charter might make no reference whatever to the city's powers and yet they would nevertheless exist.
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> The city's definition of powers does not operate to draw the powers to it, nor to exclude any undefined powers. . . . . It must be always kept in mind that under our constitution the legislature retains no power with respect to municipalities except as to the few matters reserved by the constitution. This is the broad construction of the home rule amendments of the constitution for which those cities that adopt charters must contend and the denial of which would leave the amendment barren of any advantage for our cities.

The following corrupt practices section in the charter is interesting if not unique:

> No candidate for the office of city commissioner shall make any personal canvass among the voters to secure his

nomination or election, or the nomination or election of any other candidate at the same election, whether for municipal, county, state or other office. He may cause notice of his candidacy to be published in the newspapers, and may procure the circulation of a petition for his nomination; but he shall not personally circulate such petition, nor by writing or otherwise solicit any one to support him or vote for him. He shall not expend or promise any money, office, employment or other thing of value to secure a nomination or election; but he may answer such inquiries as may be put to him and may declare his position publicly upon matters of public interest, either by addressing public meetings or by making written statements for newspaper publication or general circulation. A violation of these provisions, or any of them, shall disqualify him from holding the office, if elected; and the person receiving the next highest number of votes, who has observed the foregoing conditions, shall be entitled to the office.

This charter, which includes the city manager feature, was adopted on August 26.

The Omaha Charter. Under the provisions of the home rule amendment adopted last November, an elected convention in Omaha has completed for submission to the people a new charter. Omaha has been operating under the general commission government law for over a year and the provisions of this act, insofar as they were locally applicable, have been preserved in the new document. As western cities are wont to do, Omaha has made provisions for expansion by annexation of contiguous territory. The existing combined machinery for county and city assessment of property and for a joint office of treasurer has been continued.

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Changes in the Iowa Commission Law.—At the 1913 session of the legislature the only change made was to extend the law from cities of 7000 to cities of 2000. A new scale of salaries was adopted for cities of less than 20,000, the new scale being not to exceed $150 per thousand population for the mayor and $130 per thousand for the commissioner per year. Also a minor change giving two members of the commission the right to order paving and other permanent improvements where the commission has only three members, makes the rule a two-thirds votes instead of as in other cases a three-fourths vote.

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An Attempted Repeal of Commission Government.—Sometime ago a few disgruntled citizens of Enid, Okla., circulated an initiative petition to abolish the commission form of government in that city and return to the old system. They secured the required number of signers and at the election in April by a vote of 1246 to 636 the commission form of government was sustained.

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Changes in Kansas Commission Law.—A bill requiring candidates for commissionerships to indicate the specific departments for which they are running was the only commission government bill to pass the 1913 session.

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St. Louis Charter Suggestions.—Anent the deliberation of the city charter convention which is now in session a committee of the Central Civic Council, composed of William H. Beimes, Henry W. Barth and Roger N. Baldwin has pointed out the following defects in the present instrument.

The initiative and referendum provision is unworkable, owing to percentages for petitions that are too high.

Removals of unfaithful officials are possible only through involved court proceedings or action in the council. The recall is needed.

Too many offices are elective. The short ballot is needed.

Salaries are too low.

Unnecessary offices and numerous boards and commissions that are makeshifts for efficiency complicate the government and responsibility is divided, where it could be concentrated under a simplified form.

The contract system is often expensive and unjust.

Many minor details, such as paving and sidewalk ordinances and minor permits burden the legislative department. They ought to be in the hands of administrative officers.

Two houses hamper the legislative department.

Political spoils system works a handicap on civic service.

Municipal ownership or operation is not granted the city.

The present charter does not provide a means whereby parks, boulevards and other improvements can be acquired by assessment against benefited property in the same way streets and sewers are acquired.

The report of the committee will be considered by each of the civic organizations in St. Louis and in its final form will be submitted to the board of freeholders.

Miscellaneous. At the present writing, charter commissions are in session at Brainerd, Minn.; Pendleton, Ore.; Phoenix, Ariz.; Cadillac, Mich., and Marquette, Mich.

Commission government has recently been adopted in Orangeburg, S. C., and Cheyenne, Wyo. Late in June commission government was defeated in Camden, N. J., and on July 16 in Valley City, N. D.

The commission government law in Missouri for the benefit of third class cities has been declared by the circuit court to be unconstitutional on the ground of a discrepancy in the wording of the title and the text of the act. This decision of course, is subject to appeal to the supreme court.

H. S. GILBERTSON.[1]

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Civil Service Notes.—*Cleveland.* The civil service provisions of the new charter are similar in many respects to those of the draft of a civil service law for cities prepared by a committee of the National Civil Service Reform League. The civil service commission will consist of three members appointed by the mayor to serve for overlapping terms of six years each. It is authorized to establish a system of efficiency records to be used as a basis for promotion, reduction and separation from the service. Particular stress is placed upon the elimination of political activity on the part of all classified employees. The "city fathers" are prohibited from influencing appointments by the following clause:

> No member of the council shall, except in so far as is necessary in the performance of the duties of his office, directly or indirectly, interfere in the conduct of the administrative department, or directly or indirectly take any part in the appointment, promotion or dismissal of any officer or employee in the service of the city other than the officers or employees of the council.

Dayton. The civil service chapter of the charter is, in several particulars, in direct violation of the state civil service law. The chief examiner is made the chief employment officer of the city and is authorized to certify for appointment to the city manager the name of any person on an eligible list. The state law specifically provides for the selection of the first three names on a register. By the charter a removed employee is allowed to appeal to the civil service commission from the decision of the head of the department. Such procedure, besides being absolutely destructive of discipline, is contrary to section 17 of the civil service law, which does not permit any appeal either to the commission or to the courts. It is confidently expected that the civil service section of the charter will be tested out in court and that the state law will undoubtedly prevail.

Minneapolis. The proposed charter[1] contains a creditable civil service chapter. It creates a civil service commission of three members to be appointed by the council for overlapping terms of six years each. No adequate compensation is provided for the members of the civil service commission, as the charter provision fixes the salaries at $600 per annum. While the unclassified service is too large, yet an important clause of the charter provides that the civil service commission must give its approval of the appointments of all heads of departments who are in the unclassified service. This provision follows, in a measure, the Boston plan, which requires that the appointments of the mayor must receive the approval of the civil service commission.

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[1] Executive secretary, National Short Ballot Organization.

[1] Supra, p. 675.

New Jersey. On August 7 the state civil service commission held a very important examination for the selection of a chief of police for Newark. The examination was limited to captains in the department, who were examined by a special committee consisting of Martin H. Ray, assistant to Director of Public Safety Porter of Philadelphia, and Gardner Colby, secretary and chief examiner of the New Jersey Commission.

Augusta, Ga. A bill establishing the competitive system in the police and fire departments recently became law.

Beacon, N. Y. At its regular session the New York legislature passed a bill incorporating the city of Beacon, which was signed by Governor Sulzer over the opposition of the New York Civil Service Reform Association. This bill was opposed by the Association because it authorized the council (composed of the mayor and four commissioners) to act as a civil service commission. Such procedure is contrary to the provisions of the civil service law, which provides for municipal civil service commissions independent of the appointing power and subject to the supervision of the state commission. Notwithstanding the charter provisions, the administration of the merit system in Beacon has been organized as required by the state law. The state commission recently met with Mayor Frost and the four members of Beacon's council and recommended the appointment of a municipal commission. On August 4 the council passed a resolution appointing a commission which has recently adopted rules governing the merit system which have received the approval of the state commission.

New York City. The most important development affecting the city service was the appointment by Mayor Gaynor of a commission of thirteen members to frame a "scientific pension law." Several organizations, such as the Civil Service Reform Association, Citizens Union, City Club and Bureau of Municipal Research, which have opposed in the past legislative bills creating "patchwork" systems of annuities, are represented on the commission.

George T. Keyes.[1]

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The National Assembly of Civil Service Commissions has appointed the following committee on a model civil service law: John T. Doyle, United States Commission; Robert Catherwood, Cook County (Ill.) Commission; F. E. Doty, Wisconsin Commission; Henry Van Kleeck, Colorado Commission, and Lewis H. Van Dusen, Philadelphia Commission. The Assembly has expressed a desire to receive criticisms or suggestions in reference to a model law.

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Proportional Representation. A bill has been introduced into the House of Commons to authorize the introduction of proportional representation in municipal elections, and for other purposes connected therewith. The object of the bill is to confer on municipal boroughs the right, under certain conditions, to adopt, in place of the present system of election, a system of proportional representation. According to the *London Municipal Journal* it is not proposed to make the change compulsory. Unless it commends itself to three-fifths of the members present and voting at a council meeting after due notice, no change can take place. To ensure that all members of the council are informed that the question is coming up for discussion and decision, special notice of any resolution must be given not less than one month beforehand. If the resolution is passed by a majority of three to two, the practice of electing annually one-third of the members will be discontinued, and triennial general elections will take their place. Should the results prove unsatisfactory the bill provides for a reversion to the old system after three years by resolution of the council passed by the same majority as that by which the change had been effected.

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[1] Secretary, National Civil Service Reform League.

Pennsylvania Adopts Party Enrollment Measure.—In order to keep primary voting strictly within the party, the Pennsylvania legislature has passed a bill requiring electors to declare their political party affiliations at the time of registration and to accept the primary ballot of the party under which he is registered. No penalty is attached by the law to refusal to enroll except that failure to do so deprives the elector of a vote in the nomination of any party candidates except those on non-partisan ballots—law judges and municipal officials in second and third class cities. Violations of the act subject registrars, assessors, election officials and electors to a maximum punishment of $1000 fine and one year in jail.

II. FUNCTIONS

Municipal Utilities.—*Dr. Delos F. Wilcox,* on July 1, severed his connection with the public service commission for the first district of New York, where he has been chief of the franchise bureau practically since the commission's organization. He will engage in private practice as consulting franchise and public utility expert. He will make franchise surveys, formulate franchise policies, draft and criticise public utility legislation, negotiate franchise settlements and draft franchise contracts and ordinances.

One of his most recent activities has been a study of trolley congestion in Newark and a criticism of Newark's pending terminal franchise proposals. This study and criticism is entirely too local to reproduce here even in summary. Of general interest, however, are the population statistics he works out as a basis for adequate future transit plans for such a city. He believes that by 1960 the city's population will be 1,280,610, an increase of 372 per cent. During this fifty-year period, he concludes, the number of fares per capita will increase 169 per cent while the total number of fares paid will increase 894 per cent. While Newark proper will have a population by 1960 of 1,280,000, he believes that Greater Newark, including the Oranges, Irvington, Montclair, Bloomfield, Nutley, Harrison, Kearny and a few small towns now reached by the Newark trolleys, will have a population of 1,990,000 or nearly four times their present population. Yet the transit facilities for these future millions are now being determined by what Dr. Wilcox holds to be inadequate and ill-advised terminal subway plans.

Dr. Wilcox, whose new office is in the Bennett Building, New York City, has long been one of the leading franchise experts of the nation. His new activities will give him an opportunity to give to the nation the high grade of public service that he has thus far so conscientiously given, through the franchise bureau, to Greater New York.

New Orleans is lowering distribution costs through control over its river front and constructive operation of its belt line railroad. It now has under municipal ownership and control nearly seven miles of river front. More than twenty big wharves have been built at public expense and fitted with steel warehouses for the storage of freight and with modern machinery for the quick and cheap handling of cargoes. More than eleven miles of double track of its city owned and operated belt line have been in operation for some time. The city stands ready on application to build a switch track to the plant of any manufactory near its line and many switches are already in operation. The city makes a uniform charge of $2 a car for handling freight and returns empty cars free of charge. As long as a year ago the profits of the belt line were about $3000 a month.

The belt line performs an additional service for the city of New Orleans. Located on special side tracks along the line are five stations for receiving and handling garbage. Specially constructed cars are in waiting and after refuse is sprinkled with disinfectants it is hauled far out into the swamps. The belt line for coördinating manufacturing establishments with land, water, and other agencies for distribution, coupled with public control and ownership of the water front in order to keep free water competition, are steps commendable to any municipality interested in industrial betterment and lower living costs.

The New Cleveland Charter provides as one of the six departments, a department of public utilities. The director of this department "shall manage and supervise all non-tax supported public utility undertakings of the city, including all municipal water, lighting, heating, power, transmission and transportation enterprises." The accounts for each public utility owned and operated by the city must be kept separate and distinct and must "contain proportionate charges for all services performed for such utilities by other departments as well as proportionate credits for all services rendered." The charter also provides a division of franchises in the department. The commissioner of this division has charge of the enforcement of the provisions of all franchise grants.

The charter specifically provides that "no rights to construct, maintain or operate any public utility in Cleveland should be exclusive," and that all franchises and franchise renewals "shall reserve to the city the right to terminate the same and to purchase all the property of the utility in the streets and highways in the city and elsewhere, as may be provided in the ordinance making the grant or renewal, used in or useful for the operation of the utility, at a price either fixed in the ordinance, or to be fixed in the manner provided by the ordinance making the grant or renewal of the grant. Nothing in such ordinance shall prevent the city from acquiring the property of any such utility by condemnation proceedings or in any other lawful mode; but all such methods of acquisition shall be alternative to the power to purchase, reserved in the grant or renewal as hereinbefore provided." No franchise shall be valid unless it provide that the price paid by the city for the property that may be acquired by it from such utility "by purchase, condemnation or otherwise, shall exclude all value of such grant or renewal." Thus Cleveland has reserved in its fundamental municipal law continuous control over her municipal utilities.

Seattle's Municipal Plant. J. D. Ross, in a recent issue of *Street Lighting*, presents facts and data which clearly indicate that the municipal operation of Seattle's lighting plant has been a success and not the municipal failure that has been alleged in certain quarters. The lighting plant is competing with two water power companies. The charges it makes against the general fund are $54 per arc of 6.6 amperes and $13.80 per year per incandescent of 40-candle power. In 1905, when the city began to operate its own lighting plant, the city was paying the Seattle Electric Company $66 per year per 6.6 ampere arc and $15 per year per 30-candle power incandescent. At the time of the transfer, the street lighting system of Seattle consisted of 213 arcs and 1891 incandescents. The street lighting system now consists of 929 arcs and 5876 incandescents, 100 32-candle power carbon lamps, and 1168 5-light, 377 3-light and 137 1-light poles in the cluster light system. The minimum charge per month of the municipal light and power plant has never been more than $1 for residence lighting. The competition of the municipal plant has forced the companies to make three reductions, 40 per cent, 16⅔ per cent and 10 per cent in their rates since 1902.

Central vs. Local Control. A recent decision of a select committee of parliament has raised anew in England the controversy now occupying the forum in many sections of the United States as to the proper relation of central and local public service commissions. The decision of this committee requires the London council to allow outlying companies to run over their municipally owned and operated lines on terms agreed to with such outlying concerns; if terms cannot be agreed upon, however, they must be settled by an arbitrator appointed by the central board of trade. Other English municipalities with publicly owned and operated transit lines are uniting to support the London county council in opposing the bill granting such powers to the central board of trade. The select committee urged that, without an appeal from a local to a central body, the public could not be properly protected from interruption in through traffic and that the interests of all England require an appeal from authorities with only local interests at stake to authorities with a nation-wide point of view.

Dayton Charter. The proposed charter prohibits exclusive franchise grants and requires that all franchise grants or renewals shall reserve to the city the power to regulate, the right to terminate and the right to purchase the utility. With these three powers in the hands of the commission, the city's public service corporations will actually be *public service* corporations.

Trackless Trams. The amount in tax and road assessments to be paid by trackless trams still remains a burning issue in England. The *Municipal Journal* of May 16 reports that the select committee of parliament had agreed on three sets of principles by which trackless trolley trams and motor omnibuses are to be regulated in the future. These principles are "(1) Trackless trolley trams and motor omnibuses must not run upon roads of less than a specified width. (In the Chesterfield case the limit of the carriageway is fixed at 17 feet, and that of the footpath at 4 feet); (2) The promoters must pay a third of the cost of widening the roads to the standard laid down; (3) The promoters must pay the whole of the extra cost of road maintenance due to the use of the roads by their vehicles." It is urged, however, that this is not sufficient remuneration by such concerns. Motor traffic, it is alleged, has necessitated the construction of stronger foundations and the employment of more costly forms of caring for modern roads. These necessities have increased the expenditure in the Greater London area by a sum which competent experts estimate to be the equivalent of a penny rate annually levied. The petrol tax, now paid by the proprietors of motor vehicles. it is further stated, would defray, not more than a fraction of the increased cost of road construction and maintenance resulting directly from the motor truck. Licenses for motor trucks and for trackless trolleys will no doubt very shortly be a leading problem in American cities.

Clyde Lyndon King.[1]

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[1] Of the University of Pennsylvania and editor of "The Regulation of Municipal Utilities" in the National Municipal League Series.

Pasadena's Municipal Lighting Plant.—Municipal ownership has been put to test recently in Pasadena, Cal. This city's lighting plant was started in 1907 as a protest against high rates and against unjust bills tendered by the Southern California Edison Company. Though but six years old, there were 4333 of its meters in use on January 1, 1913, as compared with 1700 customers four years ago. The total amount of money handled in financing the plant up to July 1, 1912, was $684,409.33. Of this amount $552,059.48 was used in new construction. On March 29, 1913, the property was valued at $580,745.23. Taking from this the depreciation reserve of $95,679.32, the plant's present worth is $485,065.91. During its six years of life its net profits have totaled $48,004.35. The net operating receipts for the nine months ending March 29, 1913, was $50,937.34. This amount less depreciation ($18,130.55) and bond interest ($18,446.25) for that period shows a profit of $24,360.24.

This showing has been attained under no slight difficulties. The Southern California Edison Company serves from twenty-five to thirty cities in that state with a total population of 450,000 to 475,000. These cities include Los Angeles (320,000) as well as Pasadena (32,000). The company has lowered its rates in Pasadena to points quite below those asked by the city's own plant, though the city's rates and terms are much lower than those formerly asked by the company. The company's rates are higher, however, in the other cities. From the proceeds from these cities the company pays the loss due to its attempt to bankrupt Pasadena's plant through lowering rates. And yet, despite the fact that its rates are higher, the number of customers of Pasadena's plant is increasing. This loyalty points to ultimate success.

This situation is probably typical of the competitive conditions publicly owned plants will have to meet. The growing centralization of ownership and operation of municipal utilities will give a campaign for ownership greater opportunities for success, as the social and political opposition of local owners will not have to be overcome. But as soon as publicly owned plants are started they will have to face competitive warfare with a company whose war chest is being daily and indefinitely recouped from higher rates and poorer service in other cities.

The opposition to Pasadena's lighting plant has found most virile expression in *Public Service*, the Chicago organ of certain lighting interests. The editor of *Municipal Engineering*, after a careful study of the facts, finds these statements in *Public Service* to be "out of date, incorrect, based on wrong assumptions and therefore misleading, apparently with intent."

The best proof of the success of municipal ownership is that lighting interests find it necessary to keep a staff at work to prove that it is not successful. But misrepresentation of facts even from a corporation point of view is not a paying method for "guiding" public opinion; it shows malicious intent and leads to the suspicion that the reason for opposition is municipal success.

Clyde Lyndon King.

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Municipal Ice Plants.—The attempt of Borough President McAneny to secure the establishment of a small municipal ice plant in New York by way of an experiment, although it was blocked by the veto of Mayor Gaynor, has aroused widespread interest in that new municipal activity. Indeed, it must be regarded as among the newest excursions in the field of city government, but its urgency has long been apparent. The ice famine in New York a year or two ago, accompanied by exorbitant prices and great suffering among the poor, the strike in Cincinnati this summer, and the recognition of the relation of a plentiful ice supply to health and particularly child welfare have all combined to bring the subject prominently to the front.

Searches among the records of American cities, however, seem to throw little or no light on the subject. The magazine *Concerning Municipal Ownership*, in the issue of November, 1906, reported that when Boston experimented in municipal ice a few years before by cutting it from the city reservoir the books showed an expense of about $60 a ton. If full credence is to be given to this report, the experiment was certainly not encouraging. The magazine in question was, however, published for the sole purpose of showing the horrible examples of failure in municipal ownership, and it was not always as discriminating as it might have been in reporting extenuating or explanatory circumstances.

The *Municipal Journal and Engineer* for September 12, 1912, is authority for the statement that several American cities have been prevented by judicial orders from engaging in the manufacture of ice, but it does not go into details. The socialist administration of Schnectady was forbidden to sell or give away ice in the summer of 1912 by an order from a court. On the other hand it appears that the supreme court of Georgia views the operation of a municipal ice plant as among the legitimate functions of a city government.[1] The *Municipal Journal* of February 20, 1913, is also authority for the statement that Willimantic, Conn., had been given the right to harvest and sell ice by a charter amendment in 1907, and that the board of aldermen had appropriated the money to procure machinery and equipment. The same magazine for April 20 states that Sacramento, Cal., has prepared a report on a proposed municipal ice plant which estimates that the cost to the consumer would be reduced 500 per cent by such an establishment. A subject so closely related to public health and comfort deserves the most careful study and consideration, and it would be a timely service if someone would make an exhaustive examination of it in its technical, legal and administrative aspects.[2]

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Public Utilities in Havana.—The *Gaceta Administrativa* of Havana, a semimonthly publication devoted to questions of public administration, contains a severe arraignment of the manner in which public utilities are permitted to disregard their obligations, through the lack of efficient supervision by the administrative authorities. As examples of the need of proper supervision the *Gaceta* takes the gas light company and the tramways of Havana. The charge for illuminating gas in Havana, a city of over 300,000 inhabitants, is declared to be nearly 9 cents a cubic yard, as compared with charges of less than 3 cents a cubic yard in certain of the large cities of Europe. With this enormous charge the service is described as antiquated and unsatisfactory and the reason for this state of affairs is laid to the fact that franchises are extended beyond the original term of years without proper publicity and opportunity for other bidders.

The tramways are said to be in such a dilapidated and filthy state as to be in the highest degree unsanitary, while the railway cars are of mediaeval construction, lighted by petroleum and without the first conveniences for travelers. The *Gaceta* declaring that no attempt at all is made by the public officials to safeguard the general interests against the selfish attitude of the companies in charge of the public utilities, hopes that the time may soon come when these public utility corporations will not be permitted to do only that which seems to them best.

Herman G. James.

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[1] See National Municipal Review, vol. ii, p. 339.

[2] The Editor of the National Municipal Review will welcome additional data on the subject of municipal ice plants at home and abroad.

Trolley Freight as a means for better local distribution and better facilities for direct marketing for farmers, and better food at lower costs for the urban dweller is discussed in full by Dr. Clyde Lyndon King in *The Aera* of June, 1913. Further illustrating the possibilities for trolley freight, as indicated in Dr. King's article, Henry M. Hyde has pointed out that, within the limits of fifteen or twenty miles from the center of Chicago, vegetables, small fruit and other truck are grown to the value of $7,000,000 a year. Almost all of this produce is now hauled into the city by wagons. The trolley lines of the city not only tap this farming country, but also have connection with the transportation systems running into the center of the city.

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Minneapolis Fixes Seventy Cent Gas Rate.—By a vote of 22 to 3, the city council passed an ordinance fixing a 70 cent gas rate to take effect September 1. Prior to this the rate had been 85 cents. Action by the council came after a spirited debate in which opposition to the passage of the ordinance was made on the ground that there is too narrow a margin between the rate of 67.8 cents fixed by experts as the figure at which the gas company could make a bare profit of 6 per cent and the 70 cent established by the ordinance. It is expected that a long drawn out battle between the city and the gas company will ensue as a result of this ordinance.

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Municipal Ownership Contest in Omaha, Neb.—In view of a recent decision of the Supreme Court of the United States upholding the rights of the electric light company in Omaha, whose charter expired many years ago, a strong movement for the establishment of a competing municipal plant has set in.

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Chicago's Financial Difficulty.—As a result of a decision of the supreme court of Illinois interpreting the Juul revenue law of the state, the city of Chicago found itself in 1912 in the severest financial difficulty since the days of the great fire. The Juul law grew out of an idea that the aggregate rate of taxation, exclusive of specified exceptions, shall not be more than 1 per cent on the actual valuation of taxable property, and up to 1909, property being assessed at one-fifth its actual value, the maximum tax rate outside of the exceptions was placed at 5 per cent of the assessed valuation. The bonding limit was based on the assessed valuation and fixed at 5 per cent. In 1909, in order to increase the bonding power of Chicago, the Juul law was amended whereby the assessed valuation was increased from the one-fifth to one-third of the real valuation and the maximum tax rate decreased from 5 per cent to 3 per cent of the assessed valuation. As part of the changes introduced by the amendments to the law, the maximum rates of some of the taxing corporations were correspondingly reduced, and here the city of Chicago got the worst of it. Up to 1909 the maximum tax levy for the city was $2 for each $100 of assessed valuation; for the county, 75 cents; for the sanitary district, $1; for the board of education, not including school buildings, $2.50; for the tuberculosis sanitarium, 10 cents; and the public library, 10 cents. All these tax levies were subject to a "sealing:" that is, when the tax rates were figured out, the levies were cut down proportionately so that in the aggregate they would not be more than 3 per cent. In 1909, when the law was changed, the maximum levy of Chicago was reduced from $2 to $1.20; the board of education's levy for educational purposes was cut down from $2.50 to $1.50; and the library's maximum was reduced to 6 cents. The maximum rates for the other taxing bodies, however, remained the same. As a result of the law the various taxing bodies swelled their tax levies in order to come out from the sealing process with as large a proportion of the 3 per cent as possible. Some of them were even able to lay by a neat surplus. But the city could do very little to swell its levy. It was safeguarded by a minimum of $1.10 but held down by the maximum of $1.20, with the practical necessity of levying sufficient in addition to pay principal and interest on part of its bonded indebtedness.

In 1911, the county clerk in fixing the rate for the city, allowed it the $1.10, plus the rate necessary to pay the charge arising under its bonded indebtedness, or a total of $1.43. Up to that year the interest and sinking fund on bonded debt was carried outside the Juul law limitation only on bonds issued subsequent to the enactment of the law. But by this time so many bonds had been approved by referendum and issued after the passage of the Juul law that the interest and principal charges growing out of them became evident as forming the greater part of the city's levy for interest and sinking fund, and as a result of this situation the interest and principal charge on all bonded indebtedness was placed outside the corporate purpose limitation.

As usual, the city made its appropriations for the current year early in January and about the same time passed the tax levy out of which the funds appropriated were to be paid. The levy, however, following custom, was not to be collected until the following year. In the meantime, the city met its running expense by borrowing in anticipation of future collections. It has been customary to borrow about 75 per cent of the net amount which the city expected to realize from the levy. Expenditures on account of appropriations which were based on the remaining 25 per cent were met out of what might be called a working capital fund made up in part of cash and in part of unanticipated taxes of the prior year.

In 1912, after the appropriation bill had been passed and a tax levy made accordingly, the supreme court of the state handed down its decision that levies for bonded debt purposes must be included within the rate limitation. Under the method followed in 1911, the city figured on $1.10 for corporate purposes and an additional 33 cents for interest and sinking fund. By the decision of the court, the additional item of 33 cents was cut off and the interest and sinking fund charges had to be consequently met out of the tax levy for corporate purposes. As the city had already largely borrowed in anticipation of this portion of the tax levy, over half the funds of which had been actually spent, in spite of a rigid retrenchment, it found itself confronted by a deficit of nearly $3,000,000. Temporary relief was granted the city by the state legislature in permission to issue bonds to make good the shortage, and in May, 1913, the legislature amended the Juul law providing that thereafter no reduction of any tax levy shall diminish an amount appropriated by corporate or taxing authorities for the payment of principal or interest on bonded indebtedness, thereby removing the threatened possibility of embarrassment or impairment and restriction of the credit or progress of any municipality in the state. The city of Chicago tax rate for 1912 made prior to the amendnent to the Juul law was $1.24 on the $100. Estimating 1912 valuations and tax levy figures as a basis, the rate pursuant to the amendment will be $1.59, increasing the city revenue upon taxes extending from $12,124,169 to $14,953,157, or a gain of $2,828,988. In addition to this gain, the city will have the benefit to be derived from the park consolidation act, which has been estimated as $2,556,000. So that as a result of the amendment of the Juul law and the park consolidation act the revenue of Chicago will be increased over $5,000,000.

Murray Gross.

Bridgeport Board of Contract and Supply Guards City Funds.—By an ordinance of the city council passed January 15, 1912, Bridgeport, Conn., added a board of contract and supply to the executive department of the city government. With exceptions created by the city charter, this board is vested with the duty of making all contracts and purchases. During the year ending March 31, 1913, the board issued orders aggregating $175,000. The total savings on these orders, where comparisons with previous expenditures could be made, amounted to $20,289 (exclusive of cash discounts amounting to $577). The total operating expense of the board was $4519. Thus, in spite of the difficulties that confronted it in its first year, the board has demonstrated its usefulness to the taxpayer.

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Police News.—*Police Education.* The greatest need of American police forces at the present day is a comprehensive and systematic scheme for the education of the police. Instances of police inefficiency due to ignorance are usually ascribed by the press and by citizens to police corruption. If a case against a prisoner fails of successful prosecution because the police officer does not present the proper evidence to the court, this failure of justice is believed to be caused by the corruption of the policeman, although it is really due to his ignorance of the law and the rules of evidence. Similarly, when the detectives are unable, because of ignorance of the details of their profession, to apprehend criminals it is ascribed to corruption and seldom to lack of knowledge. Police officers can be rendered efficient and the few corrupt officers in a police organization can be exposed only by a comprehensive system of police education. Recruits should be carefully instructed in the criminal statutes and ordinances, the rules of evidence, the treatment of prisoners, first aid to the injured, physical training, revolver shooting and riding. The course of instruction should be from three to six months in duration and should be in charge of competent instructors, permanently assigned to this work. Superior officers of the force and policemen of experience should also be required to attend the police school for a definite period each year and should be given an opportunity to discuss with the faculty of the school difficult problems arising in the course of their official duties.

New York Manual. A new police manual has recently been issued to the members of the force by Commissioner Rhinelander Waldo of New York. It is printed on separate sheets bound in a leather loose-leaf binder, thus permitting the substitution of a new page whenever a rule is amended. The arrangement of the rules is alphabetical and each rule is numbered consecutively from the first to the last. In the editing of the manual the problem of making the information quickly available was kept constantly in mind. Many of the rules have been prepared in topical outline form rather than in narrative form. The book also has an excellent index. It contains only the rules of the department and does not contain any extraneous material so frequently found in books of this kind. From every point of view it is the best police manual that has come to the attention of the editor of these notes.

Philadelphia Manual. The new police manual recently issued by director Porter to the police force of Philadelphia contains in addition to the rules and regulations of the department much valuable information for the instruction of the policemen in the performance of their duties. It combines the function of a course of study for a school for recruits with a manual of rules and regulations. The police officer who has mastered the information contained in this manual regarding the rules of the department, the principles of criminal law and of evidence, the municipal ordinances, first aid to the injured and the proper police action to be taken in each of more than two hundred specified cases has nearly all of the information which an efficient police school could give him. The manual has blank pages for notes and amendments. If we accept as correct the opinion that a police manual should contain in addition to the rules and regulations of the department, a compilation of the statutes and the ordinances and information assisting the policeman in performing his official duties, this Philadelphia manual is an excellent addition to American official police literature.

Policewomen. Women have been employed as members of American police forces for many years and have performed extremely efficient service as matrons (female turnkeys) and as detectives. Several police departments have recently appointed women for the performance of patrol service, with special instructions to confine their activities principally to the protection of women and children. This experiment has not been tried for a sufficiently long period of time to enable competent observers to determine whether such patrolwomen add to the efficiency of the police department.

Leonhard Felix Fuld.

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Marshall Field's Private Subway in Chicago.—The periodical cries of special privilege grants and of encroachments upon the rights of the people by big business concerns have been heard in Chicago for several months. The occasion this time is the request of the Marshall Field estate for the right to build a private subway under Washington Street, to connect its present skyscraper store with a projected one to be erected at a cost of six or seven million dollars on the southwest corner of Wabash Avenue and Washington Street. The ordinance introduced in the city council to grant this privilege provided that the substreet connection should be approximately 48 feet long and 200 feet wide, to the depth of 15 feet. The grant was to be for twenty years and was to be revocable without the consent of the grantee by the mayor and city council.

When this ordinance was introduced on July 8, 1912, opinion at once became sharply divided. Those in opposition to the ordinance recalled that since the death of the late Marshall Field, in less than two years, the Field estate has secured nearly twelve million dollars worth of real estate in the congested "Loop" district of the city. They held that such concentration of the valuable property of the business section was a menace to the healthy growth of Chicago, and that the city should take cognizance of this fact by preventing any further concentration by special privilege. The men in favor of the ordinance insisted that a firm of the commercial and advertising importance of Marshall Field's should be encouraged in its development. On the wider question of the future building policy of the city, there was also a division.

The committeee on streets and alleys on July 22, reported the ordinance favorably by a vote of 9 to 3. After a great deal of lobbying by representatives of Marshall Field interests, and by various civic and commercial assocations against the measure, the ordinance was defeated on the floor of the council on October 14. The supporters of the ordinance lacked but six votes of the necessary majority.

It was well understood that Marshall Field's would not abandon its object so soon, and in preparation for the defeat of the reconstructed ordinance whose introduction was expected immediately, the opposing members of the council, assisted very ably by the City Club of Chicago, the North-West Side Commercial Association, and the Greater Chicago Federation, began a strenuous agitation among the constituents of the favoring aldermen. Aside from the fear of the encroachments of the gigantic Marshall Field estate upon the rights of the community, these associations pointed out that the congestion in the "Loop" district was already a menace to proper and healthy city growth, and that any increase in this congestion would make more improbable and more distant the expansion of Chicago's chief business enterprises away from the specially favored and specially congested area which they now occupy. They maintained that the construction of the subway would augment this congestion, although the very idea of an underground passageway, acording to the attorneys for Marshall Field, was to obviate the increased congestion which the crossing of Washington Street from one store to the other would entail. The ordinance was so worded, according to its enemies, that not only a private subway, which might eventually be incorporated into a municipally owned system of subways, but also additional sub-basement floor area might be added to the enormous store space already held by the firm. This would necessitate the employment of many more persons in unhealthful conditions below the level of the ground, and endanger patrons and employees in case of a large fire originating in the basement or lower portion of the store building. In reply to the claim that the ordinance make the grant revocable at any time, the adversaries of the measure declared that with Marshall Field's resources for legal warfare, it would take the city years to recover the passageway if it were once given away. As a precedent in city administration it was stated that the passage of the ordinance would be regretted, as after the first grant every large business in the congested district would demand the right to extend its store space under the streets. The renumeration promised the city, some $3,200 per year, although ridiculously low, was not discussed much by either side, as it was felt that the important matter was the granting of the special privilege itself, and not the pecuniary benefit which might accrue to the city.

After a newspaper attack on the integrity of Alderman Utpatel, the leader of the council opposition to the ordinance, and his demand for a committee to examine the charges against him, made, as he declared, to discredit his work against Marshall Field's "grab," the remodelled ordinance was introduced and reported favorably by committee on November 4. The compensation was increased to $5000 annually, and the average width of the Washington Street passageway reduced from 200 feet to 80 feet. The measure has not yet appeared on the floor of the council in its amended form. Alderman Utpatel and the three associations are making every effort to defeat its passage when it does come up. Alderman Utpatel has been exonerated of the charges of bribery brought against him, by the council committee appointed for investigation. It is to be hoped that the subway concession will not be granted, for it is certain to place the Marshall Field Estate in a commanding place in the congested "Loop," and in an extremely advantageous position should the proposed municipal subway be constructed through Washington Street, as is projected.[1]

J. R. Everett.[2]

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[1] Since the writing of this report the amended measure has come before the city council and been passed by a vote of 42 to 24. The ordinance was passed in spite of increased opposition on the part of the various civic organizations, the Municipal Voters' league, and the city sewer engineer who declared that the subway, when built, would be likely to interfere with the future remodeling of the sewer system. The far reaching questions of policy raised by the measure have been unanswered by the city council, which has been content to pass on the specific instance without defining its policy in regard to other such applications. If the council pursues a thoroughly impartial course, there is little doubt but that within a short time, all the downtown streets will be appropriated to similar purposes. The action of the council members in yielding to the pressure of the lobbyists for Marshal Field has aroused much criticism and dissatisfaction with the city administration.

[2] Student in the School of Journalism, Columbia University.

New Standards for the Buying of Street Lights.—A street testing photometric laboratory—an achievement of nation-wide and indeed of international significance to every city buying light—has recently been attained in Philadelphia as a result of the supervision and activities of Dr. Hollis Godfrey. In his efforts, Dr. Godfrey has had the hearty support of Director Morris L. Cooke and Mayor Blankenburg. This achievement has been the proving of the correctness of street measurements of city light through the design and construction of a movable photometric laboratory for street inspection of public lights. Street tests and laboratory tests are the only two means that we have of measuring light, and adequate and reliable means of testing the accuracy of street photometric measurement have never before been made possible.

It is impossible to bring mantle lights to the laboratory without so injuring the mantle as to make therein tests wholly unjust to the lighting corporation. Dr. Godfrey attempted to bring gasoline lights to the photometric laboratory under continuous supervision of high class engineers, but found that it was impossible to get them to the laboratory without the injury above indicated. Since mantle lamps cannot be brought to the laboratory, it remained to bring the laboratory to the lamps. To overcome this difficulty, he devised, with the coöperation of some of the best engineers of the United States, a photometric laboratory, called for convenience sake "the floating laboratory," mounted on a 1500 pound motor truck, with a cover specially designed and with equipment intended to be of a precision as high as that in any stationary lighting laboratory in the country.

For the purpose of determining the accuracy of street measurements six hundred comparative tests have been made in this laboratory with a portable photometer by nine leading illuminating engineers with seven experts, including some of the best readers in the United States, reading against each other and the comparison of all these tests shows variations of but 0.3 of a candle between the series records of the street and the laboratory tests.

Street tests for lighting as the basis of the purchase of city light, are now a practical possibility. As a result of these tests, Philadelphia has been saved $55,221.91 in the first six months of the year 1913, January to June, inclusive. This is in the form of reductions in the bills of the Welsbach Street Lighting Company of America, deductions made for not keeping the lights up to standard specifications.

Dr. Godfrey, a consulting municipal and industrial engineer with headquarters at West Medford, Massachusetts, was appointed to his present position some ten months ago by the director. Mayor Blankenburg has recently lent him to Atlantic City for the purpose of making a comprehensive lighting plan for that city. He is also acting as consulting engineer for the lighting restoration of Independence square.

Efficiency and economy in the lighting of Philadelphia are also being furthered by a recent step taken by Director Cooke in organizing a lighting board of supervisors, composed of the chiefs of the three bureaus of gas, lighting and electricity. The former conditions where these three bureaus were independent and were duplicating each other's functions produced complexities and difficulties most wasteful to the taxpayer. Through the new board the city will be able to take new steps towards a coördinated, unified lighting policy.

III. CITY PLANNING AND IMPROVEMENT

A Pittsburgh Anti-Billboard Campaign.[1]—A report of the billboard campaign conducted by the Civic Club of Allegheny County during the 1913 session of the Pennsylvania legislature would not be complete without brief mention of the preparation made beforehand. The billboard committee was entirely reorganized, the system formerly in force of representation of civic organizations upon it was discontinued and the members were chosen only from members of the club and individuals interested in the work. The same policy was continued by which for several years past the Civic Club, through its billboard committee, has been making an effort to stimulate a healthy public sentiment relative to the danger of longer permitting billboard advertising to continue without public supervision.

It was found that public sentiment, however, could do little until adequate legislation was secured, and it was recognized that the first necessity would be to obtain from the legislature power for the municipalities to act in this matter.

In line with the proposed activities, sub-committees were appointed on owners and advertisers, legislation, publicity, finance. During the time the legislative committee was drafting two bills, the publicity committee was distributing folders, pamphlets, blotters, etc., at all public meetings where permission could be obtained. The committee had a stand for one week at the East Liberty Exposition, where quantities of such material were put out broadcast. This was repeated during the legislative session in April when the committee had a stand for a couple of weeks at the Automobile Exhibit in Motor Square Garden. Five of the members of the Camera Club of Pittsburgh donated twenty-five beautiful views of Pittsburgh to be hung in contrast with the photographs of the views marred and rendered unattractive by billboards. Several thousand flyers containing an explanation of the bills and the list of representatives were distributed with the request to recipients to write to the members of the general assembly.

The two bills introduced were prepared in collaboration with the city solicitor. One extended the police power of the municipalities respecting billboards, signs, and other outdoor advertising and concerned the regulation and suppression of the same, known as H. R. 1100. The other provided for including in the taxable value of lands upon which are maintained billboards, signs or other advertising devices, the increased value of such lands resulting from the use of such premises for advertising purposes. This was No. 1101. Both bills were introduced on February 27 by Dr. Joseph G. Steedle of McKees Rocks. No. 1100 was referred to the committee on municipal corporations and No. 1101 to the judiciary special committee. The latter was negatived in committee before a hearing could be arranged, but was reconsidered. An effort to get them both in one committee failed but a hearing of the joint committees was agreed to and held on March 26. Two members of the club, one of the Pittsburgh city solicitors, and Andrew Wright Crawford of Philadelphia spoke in favor of the measures and three representatives of the billboard interests and bill posters union, one from Scranton and two from Pittsburgh, spoke against them.

On April 2, the two bills were reported out of committee. It seemed necessary then to send someone to Harrisburg to watch the bills, as they were not sent to the house immediately after being reported out of committee. A competent and energetic member of the club represented the committee and won many friends for the bills.

On April 17, the two bills passed second reading. They came up for third reading just a few moments before eleven o'clock on Tuesday, April 22, when many who had been pledged to vote for them had left the house. Dr. Steedle, who had been found to be somewhat lukewarm in his interest, did little to further their passage and allowed final action to be taken, with the result that No. 1100 was defeated by a vote of 48 to 57. Of the latter number 21 negative votes were from Philadelphia, while only one member from Allegheny County voted against it. No. 1101 was put on the postponed calendar. An effort was made the following Monday night, April 28, for a reconsideration of bill No. 1100 for amendment to cover only cities of the second class. One of the representatives from Philadelphia who had charge of the opposition from that city agreed to support, and have his delegation support, the bill if so amended; but later he changed his mind. The representative of Erie County, who admitted he was acting as attorney for billboard owners and their lobby, decided to make no concession. The active representatives of the Pittsburgh Bill Posting Company were able to keep their entire state organization in line to prevent an entering wedge of restrictive legislation by way of second class cities. If the bill had been called up as arranged on Monday evening when the Philadelphia members had agreed to "go along" on it if amended, there was an even chance it would have gone through, but the members who had agreed to call for a reconsideration failed to do so and no attempt made during the next few days could inspire them to such action. The number of pledges were reduced each day until hardly a corporal's guard could have been mustered. The lobby of the billboard interests was too strong and their arguments against the bills too persuasive to be ignored by the majority of this conglomerate body of law makers, and the intersts were relieved when the Civic Club bills were out of the way, for the only other one touching billboards, introduced by a Philadelphia member, was easily disposed of.

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[1] Conducted by the Civic Club of Allegheny County in the Pennsylvania legislature of 1913.

It had been decided in case No. 1100 failed of reconsideration in the house to introduce a new measure through the senate affecting only cities of the second class, but this was abandoned upon advice "that even if such bills were passed in the senate the continued efforts would only be of educational value as the opposition was too strongly entrenched in the house."

During these weeks there was a very active publicity campaign being carried on from the Civic Club headquarters. Between 2500 and 3000 letters were sent throughout the state urging support for bills Nos. 1100 and 1101. In addition to the leaflets, etc., distributed at meetings, there were talks before clubs, etc., but with it all there was very little help from the newspapers. Conversation with many members of the legislature and the later activity of the billboards owners' lobby testified to the effectiveness of the state-wide campaign of education that had been waged by the Civic Club. Hundreds of letters poured into the legislators from all over the state so that they already had knowledge of the bills before it came time to vote upon them.

The chief weakness of the club's effort was found in the fact that it was making the only personal effort in behalf of the bills. While the importance of the letters is not to be minimized, the pressure of correspondence from constituents could not compare with the influence brought to bear by the representatives of billboard owners in half a dozen cities of the state. The situation the Civic Club faced was one of a strongly entrenched and well-organized state-wide vested interest being attacked on the ground of the public good with the only real activity in the attack localized in Pittsburgh.

The generous and hearty response of interested individuals throughout the state has encouraged the committee sufficiently, even in the face of defeat, to enlarge the scope of the work to cover the state. It hopes by degrees to secure the support of each county and to push ahead in a renewed effort to eclipse what has been up-to-date the biggest anti-billboard campaign attempted in the state of Pennsylvania.

H. Marie Dermitt.[1]

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Property Restrictions.—The first principle in restricting property is that the contract of restriction, for such a restriction is a contract as to the use of land, be entered into by all the parties interested in the property, as owners, mortgagees, incumbents, or otherwise. The second principle is that the restriction be clear and definite as to the nature and character of the things prohibited and as to the burdens imposed. The third principle is that the restriction be clear and definite as to the extent of the territory affected.

The second and third principles are more commonly violated than the first. Violation of the second principle is usually merely a question of the use of language. As to the third principle, however, it appears to be almost the universal practice to leave the location and area of the property to be implied from collateral circumstances. The more clearly these last two principles are observed, the fewer the questions left for judicial interpretation.

It is perfectly possible to impose any restriction which is not against public policy or morals in such a manner as to be enforceable by any owner of property affected.

In the case of the Sage Foundation Homes Company, New York, the restrictions were imposed upon a tract of land free from the lien of mortgages and unincumbered in any manner whatsoever. The character of the restrictions and the location of the property affected were clearly and definitely set forth in a recorded declaration. While it is true that this declaration had no effect so long as the Sage Foundation Homes Company was the exclusive owner of the property, when one lot was conveyed subject to and with the benefit of the restrictions as set forth in the declaration, the restrictions were thereupon immediately put in force as to all of the property.

John Nolen.

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A Summer School of Town Planning.—The University of London has set an example which some American institutions of learning may well emulate. It established this year a summer session on town planning at Hampstead Garden Suburb for the purpose of enabling municipal officers, surveyors, engineers, and others interested in the subject in its theoretical and practical aspects to take a short course. The curriculum embraced lectures by eminent authorities on the engineering, legal, financial, and social aspects of city planning, excursions and visits to model estates, villages, and similar experiments, and exhibitions of maps, drawings, and plans. A university certificate of attendance was awarded to members of the school, and special arrangements were made for the accommodation of those in attendance.

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Dallas Improves University Grounds.—The people of Dallas, Tex., have a new place of interest and beauty as a result of the improvement of the grounds of Dallas University as planned by George E. Kessler of St. Louis. While the university stands in the center of a thirty acre tract of land, which has a natural elevation of 100 feet above the city, and which abounds in shady groves, picturesque ravines and rugged cliffs, the addition of driveways, walks, terraces, sunken gardens and fountains has contributed greatly to a "university beautiful" which will be a credit to the city.

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[1] Secretary of the Civic Club.

IV. POLITICS

The Progressive Municipal Platform.—The national committee of the Progressive party has published a pamphlet on "The Making of a Municipal Platform" (with special reference to New York), by M. L. Ransom, with a foreword by Colonel Roosevelt. The essence of the document is as follows: A mere fusion of reformers and others for the purpose of "ousting grafters" is futile and destined to disruption and impotency; a progressive municipal platform should be confined to purely city issues and not inject national politics into local contests; municipal elections should be held in the spring and divorced from other elections; in New York City, the board of estimate and apportionment should be given full control over the budget subject to the recall; the referendum should be set up for important franchises and public utility contracts; perpetual franchises should be fought at all costs; all utilities should be under public control, and under public ownership and operation, "if need be;" municipal ice plants, terminal markets, and school lunches should be established; and problems of housing, city planning, and taxation should receive careful attention. Mr. Ransom advised against the nomination of a partisan ticket by the Progressives, in favor of the nomination of a ticket of men ready to carry out a program of "enlightened liberalism."

Mr. Roosevelt's concise statement of his philosophy of municipal government is so significant that it deserves quotation almost in its entirety:

> Unlike both the old parties, the Progressive party has a platform which in very important respects applies in local precisely as in state and national affairs. This may mean that in certain cities the local Progressive organization offers by far the best instrument for obtaining in municipal matters social and industrial justice through clear and efficient governmental action. But in many of our cities, including all our biggest cities, the conditions are so utterly different that our first effort must be to keep the local and national issues distinct.
>
> In these larger cities, the problems of administration and policy are sometimes more formidable and difficult than those confronting many states; but the conditions of economic injustice, the opportunities for constructive governmental activity, and the consequences of retrogressive administration, all come a little more closely home to the citizen, than similar phases of state and national government sometimes do. It is not so much that the problems, the conditions, or the needs, are so much different, in municipal as compared with state and national administration, but that they are more obvious and undeniable. Thus it comes about that in these cities there are many good citizens who thus far—mistakenly, as we believe—oppose us on national and state-wide application of our fundamental principles and purposes but are willing to join with us in giving local application to essentially the same humanitarian conceptions of government. They disagree with us, for instance, on the tariff, or on the power of the national government to deal with child labor and problems of the minimum wage, but agree with us that the powers of the municipal government should be actively employed to secure not merely honesty, economy and efficiency in administration, stability in public credit, and enforcement of the law, but also better housing and living conditions for wage-workers, more adequate means of effective, continuous control over franchise-holding public utilities, a more comprehensive system of public parks and play-grounds, a coördinated and cheapened system of transportation to make the suburban districts a unified part of the greater city, the socialization of the facilities for the public enjoyment of music, art, science, athletic diversions, and the like, a readjustment of taxation so as to make its burdens more equitably distributed and the exercise of the taxing power of the state a factor for economic justice. These citizens are in doubt as to the desirability, for instance, of the introduction of the recall, the referendum, or the initiative, into state-wide or nation-wide matters, yet are quite willing to establish the rule of the people in municipal affairs, through the introduction of suitable forms of these expedients. They doubt whether minimum wage legislation, in the form which it has taken in some of the nations of the world, is con-

sonant with our economic and political theories, or they doubt whether our conditions yet call for the enactment of such legislation in the state of New York; yet they readily acquiesce in our view that every large city should begin at once to do its part and make its contribution toward solving the problem of the minimum wage, through the establishment of suitable educational facilities for vocational and "continuation" training, along lines which will give every boy and girl a chance for a schooling of practical value, thereby obviating the possibility that he or she will ever be a problem for the student of the minimum wage. Many citizens who are not yet progressives, with either a large or a small P, in national affairs, are liberals of demonstrated tendencies in municipal matters. It is surely desirable that all citizens who agree on these fundamental matters of municipal policy, and who desire to work for substantially the same ends in municipal affairs, should come together and act together in the war against both the forces of reaction and privilege and the forces of sheer corruption and lawlessess.

This has nothing whatever to do with party amalgamation, and to be successful it must have nothing whatever to do with that kind of fusion which consists merely in dickering for division of offices among various political organizations. It must represent the joint action of decent citizens, irrespective of their several attitudes on national politics, on behalf of a platform plainly expressing the fundamental needs of the local situation, and on behalf of candidates whose characters and expressed convictions are such that the sincerity of their acceptance of the platform is evident.

The Virginia Fee System.—The Norfolk, Va., *Gazette* has been engaged in a warfare on the fee system of paying municipal employees in that state. Among the "horrible examples," it cites clerks of city courts who receive in fees salaries higher than those enjoyed by cabinet officers of the United States, and police justices who have incomes almost as large that those received by associate justices of the Supreme Court of the United States. To this system, the *Gazette* attributes much of the corruption and machine politics in Virginia cities, and as a remedy it demands the substitution of salaries for fees.

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The California "Outlook" for June 21, gives the following report on the vote of the women in the recent municipal election:

> The total registration in Los Angeles, qualified for the municipal election, was 171,025. The number of men registered was 97,816, or 56.9 per cent of the total. The registration of women footed up 73,839, or 43.1 per cent of the total.
>
> The total vote was 89,831—only 52.5 per cent of the registration.
>
> The vote by men was 52,731.
>
> The vote by women was 37,100.
>
> The percentage of registered men voting was 54.2.
>
> The percentage of registered women voting was 50.2.
>
> The percentage of the total vote cast by men was 58.7
>
> The percentage of the total vote cast by women was 41.3.

V. CONFERENCES AND ASSOCIATIONS

British Association Meetings.—At the Newcastle-upon-Tyne meeting, May 2 and 3, of the municipal and county engineers, papers were presented by various officials of the city explaining the several engineering activities of the corporation of Newcastle, such as town-planning, highway construction, street cleaning and refuse disposal, tramways, quays and other municipal undertakings.

One hundred and sixty municipalities were represented at the annual meeting of the Association of Municipal Corporations held in London, May 28. The association adopted a resolution by unanimous vote protesting against the delay on the part of Parliament in providing a just and adequate contribution by the imperial exchequer towards the cost of various national services which are administered by the local authorities.

An immediate interim payment of at

least 2,500,000 pounds as recommended by the royal commission on local taxation was demanded for the above purpose. The association also unanimously adopted a resolution to accept the invitation from the Union of Canadian Municipalities to join in establishing an International Municipal League.

* * *

The 13th Annual Convention of the Union of Canadian Municipalities was held July 15, 16 and 17, in Saskatoon, and was a great success in the number and standing of the delegates, mayors, aldermen and city engineers from the extreme east and west being in attendance. Saskatoon is practically the center of the central western provinces of Canada, and its rapid progress and brilliant up-to-date streets and edifices excite expressions of wonder.

The annual convention of the union has frequently been called "The Canadian Municipal Parliament," and rightly so, as the delegates represent all the representative municipal bodies in the Dominion as well as the direct taxpayer.

Many of the delegates from the east assembled in Montreal, and on the way west stopped off, as a body, and paid official visits and exchanged greetings at the cities of Port Arthur, Fort William, Winnipeg and Regina. After the convention in Saskatoon the same party, with some additions, visited the cities of Edmonton and Calgary, and were impressed with the virility, activity and methods of the western brethren. Their careful expenditure of improvement loans, their solid and vast future, and their determined retention and operation of all their municipal franchises, produced a favorable conclusion as to their financial status—contrary to certain irresponsible recent critics.

The convention program was lengthy, perhaps the most important address was from ex-Mayor W. Sanford Evans, of Winnipeg, on "Debenture Issues of Municipalities," dealing with the troubles municipalities are having in floating their bonds, and suggesting that the provincial (state) legislatures appoint each a permanent board to investigate any financial requirement, and if sane and sound to give it the stamp of state approval.

"The Increasing Complexity of Municipal Government," by Mayor Hocken, of Toronto, brought out in a vivid manner the changes taking place in city government. "City Development," by Mayor Short, of Edmonton—where they do things with the "single" or land tax always in view—revealed some of the problems of city expansion. C. J. Yorath, city commissioner of Saskatoon, gave a well-considered paper on town planning, from the housing, business and industrial points of view. "An Inter-Provincial Highway Across Canada," from east to west, and "Highways in Relation to City and Rural Municipalities," emphasized the great importance, and necessity of good country roads. "The Treatment of Garbage," and "The Disposal of Sewage," treated two pressing questions before the prairie cities, and the expert information presented will help to solve these problems.

The foregoing are but a few of the many municipal matters brought forward, but will give an idea of the earnestness of the work of the union. The keynote of the convention was the necessity of expert knowledge in civic government.

G. S. Wilson.[1]

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The Eighth Annual Conference on Weights and Measures was held at the Bureau of Standards, Washington, D. C., May 14 to 17. The delegates comprise state and city weights and measures officials and sealers from all part of the country. The significance of this meeting is the active coöperation of the government in bringing together the officials of states and municipalities for the purpose of establishing uniform laws and regulations, and of administering these laws for the protection of the public.

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[1] Assistant secretary, U. C. M.

An excellent program was carried out, dealing with the technical, administrative and legal phases of the work of a sealer of weights and measures; and much interest was displayed not only by the officials who have attended the conferences on previous occasions, but also by men who were present for the first time and who were not in any way connected with weights and measures work, but who were sent by states and cities for the purpose of obtaining information with a view to establishing a weights and measures inspection system or of increasing the efficiency of one already in existence.

Three different plans of model laws were presented to meet the conditions found in the various states. The first law provides for a state superintendent of weights and measures with assistants coöperating with county and city sealers; the second provides for a state official with assistants and local sealers for the larger cities, but where the thinly settled portions are taken care of by a state department; and the third requires the state department to assume entire jurisdiction, and the state deputies cover both the cities and outlying districts, the administration being under the direction of a state superintendent of weights and measures.

In regard to the great progress made in weights and measures inspection work, it might be stated that when these conferences were inaugurated in 1905, only two states had active weights and measures departments, while now more than twenty states have such departments. This great awakening in regard to weights and measures matters is not local in character; activity is found in every section of the country, and in large, as well as small, cities and towns. During 1911 and 1912 thirty states passed legislation of some sort directly referring to the subject of weights and measures. The statutes in fourteen of these were general in their nature and authorized or required state-wide local inspection service under the general supervision of a state department of weights and measures; state-wide inspection service under officers of the state without any local inspection service; or local inspection without any supervision by the state. The activity of the legislatures of the states during the present year has, if anything, been more marked than in either of the two previous years mentioned.

F. A. Wolff.[1]

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The League of American Municipalities.—The annual conference of this League was held in August, at Winnipeg, Canada. Papers were presented by C. J. Driscoll, of the New York Bureau of municipal research; W. A. Larkin, street cleaning commissioner of Baltimore; Ossian Lang, president of the board of aldermen, of Mt. Vernon, New York; W. S. Evans, former mayor of Winnipeg; Charles L. Willert, councilman of Buffalo, and J. B. Martin, election commissioner, of Boston, Mass.

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The Fourth Annual Conference of Mayors and Other City Officials of New York, met at Binghamton on June 5, 6 and 7, 1913. A valuable and in many respects unique program of activities for the betterment of the municipalities of the state was adopted. It was the consensus of opinion of the 300 officials present that the conference was the most instructive and successful ever held by the organization.

Since the municipal empowering act became a law in May, there has been much confusion as to the scope and power of the measure. Attorney-General

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[1] Of the Bureau of Standards, Washington.

Thomas Carmody, at first gave it as his opinion that the new law conferred a broad grant of power on the cities, under which they could do about anything they pleased. Governor Sulzer accepted this interpretation and vetoed many bills on the ground that the so-called "home rule" law granted the powers which the special legislation sought to confer. Several cities proceeded to change their forms of government, although the Mayors' Conference and the Municipal Government Association, for which organizations the bill was drafted, contended that the law did not permit cities to change their forms of government, nor did it change the form of any municipal government. At the first session of the conference the Attorney-General and Laurence A. Tanzer, who drafted the bill, participated in the discussion and the former reversed his first decision and accepted the interpretation of Mr. Tanzer and the conference.

The legislative program adopted by the conference calls upon Governor Sulzer to ask the legislature at its special session to consider favorably the passage of an optional city charter bill and the constitutional amendment. With these two measures on the statute books and the empowering act already a law, the cities of New York State will have genuine home rule. An attempt was made to include in the legislative program a declaration in favor of legalizing baseball on Sunday. Strong opposition developed and Secretary Capes was instructed to take a referendum of the mayors of the state on the subject. The conference protested against giving poor law officials authority over admitting patients to public hospitals and passed resolutions commending the governor and the legislature for enacting the health bills, calling upon counties to build tuberculosis hospitals and cities to employ visiting nurses and to establish dispensaries. The conference strongly favored the constitutional amendment authorizing "excess condemnation" and urged the people of the state to ratify the action of the legislature at the election next fall.

The city planning expert advisory committee was authorized to make a survey of the state to determine what has been done and what needs to be done in municipalities in the way of city planning. It was also authorized to arrange early next year a state city planning conference. At the symposium on municipal needs the fact was established that the chief problem in many of the cities of the state is unequal assessments and poor taxation methods. The conference authorized a survey of assessment methods in the various cities and appointed a committee to do the work and to report at the next conference.

A state-wide municipal welfare movement, proposed by Secretary Capes, was approved by the conference and a committee was appointed to organize a welfare program in every city in the state.

The conference resolved to establish a state bureau of municipal information, which will be operated by the cities through the conference and in coöperation with the State Library. It will be established at Albany and will be supervised by a council of five mayors and directed by a small paid staff.

During the three days of the conference the officials listened to and discussed addresses made by experts on nine important municipal problems.

Mayor John J. Irving of Binghamton was reëlected president; Mayor James T. Lennon of Yonkers, vice-president; Mayor Frank J. Baker, of Utica, treasurer; William P. Capes, New York, secretary, and E. A. Moore, New York, assistant secretary. The next conference will be held at Auburn.

W. P. Capes.

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The California League of Municipalities.—The fourth annual exposition, in connection with the sixteenth annual convention of the League will be held in Venice, October 5 to 12, inclusive. At the same time and in the same place, the city and county health officers will hold their fifth annual conference with the officers of the state board of health. In this connection the second annual pure food and hygienic exposition will be held at the same time, under the auspices of the California state board of health and under the personal supervision of Prof. M. E. Jaffa, director of the state food and drug laboratory.

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A Municipal League in Oregon.—A league composed of officers and former officers of cities in Oregon is in process of formation. The headquarters of the league will be at Eugene and the university will act as a bureau of municipal research for the benefit of the members of the organization. Prof. F. G. Young, of the department of economics, is taking a leading part in launching the society.

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The Indiana Municipal League held its twenty-third annual convention at Gary, Ind., July 8 to 10. One hundred and ninety-seven delegates attended the sessions and thirty-two cities out of a membership of fifty were represented. The convention devoted its discussion to a consideration of the benefits to be derived from public utilities commissions, the problems of engineering in a city, sewage disposal and sanitation. A resolution was passed recommending that the state legislature pass an act enabling municipalities to increase their indebtedness from 2 to 8 per cent of property valuation. Columbus was selected as the meeting place for 1914. A. C. Cunningham, Esq., city attorney of Lafayette, was reëlected president, and Dr. D. A. Davison, mayor of Princeton, was elected secretary.

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The Baltimore Plan of Organization for Civic Work.—Organization to bring about civic improvement in towns and villages is comparatively simple. There it is possible for the central committee to plan out the unit of work and divide it among the workers. Given enthusiasm and intelligence, good results will follow. But when the territory to be affected covers from twenty-five to fifty square miles and the population to be interested and converted runs into the hundreds of thousands, the task becomes complicated and a system of pulleys to direct and control the power is necessary. The organization plan which the Women's Civic League of Baltimore has tried is simply such a system of pulleys.

The first makeshift that presents itself to most municipal organizations is that of dividing the city into geographical units in an effort to duplicate the situation in towns. Districting an organization into twenty or thirty sections, however, tends to make the central body a kind of federation, and however much different parts of the city may present local variations, they all share certain city-wide conditions which should be met by a united, consistent policy.

The Baltimore league has made use of the geographical ward divisions of the city to subdivide its work, but it has made provision for bringing the local districts into direct contact with the central committees at fully half a dozen points.

The general working policies of the league are decided upon by the executive committee. The active work is carried on by chairmen appointed by this committee to take charge of each subject in which the league is interested. At present there are five of these subjects: Home gardens, smoke abatement, refuse disposal, milk and education. Their chairmen are members of the executive committee which holds weekly meetings, which also appoints the twenty-four local district chairmen and meets with them once a month, when each chairman gives a report and is brought into contact with the central control and also hears the experience of the chairmen in other parts of the city.

These district chairmen also find local chairmen in their wards for the different subjects and the local subject chairmen meet about once a month with the rather small central subject committee which is planning the work in each line.

Throughout the year meetings are held in the districts, quite often attended by fifty to a hundred women, and at each of these meetings there are reports from headquarters, from the district chairman and from all the special chairmen, keeping the local members informed and providing a channel for their suggestions to affect the work being carried on. This plan not only makes it easy for the district members to keep informed on all subjects, but it minimizes the number of meetings which the chairmen must attend—in short, it unifies the plans and divides the work.

Last autumn (1912) district chairmen were appointed in the 11th, 12th, 14th (inc. part of the 13th), 15th and 16th wards. Quite lately chairmen have been appointed in the 1st, 6th and 20th wards. The table given below will show what the organization has meant to the membership, and as members are the stock in trade of civic leagues, a certain degree of success may be argued from the increase of members. Needless to say, the league now expects to carry its organization plan into every district of the city.

The plan is not meant to be devoted exclusively to meetings and reports. At any time when concerted action on a special subject becomes necessary, or when a city-wide canvass of a situation is needed, twenty-four telephone calls or postals should bring immediate results from every part of the city. The same machine serves every subject chairman and will continue to do so as the subjects increase.

Some of the district chairmen have elaborately organized their districts; others simply hold central district meetings. Methods within the district are left to the discretion of the district chairmen.

This machinery, of course, only provides methods for securing public coöperation and better-informed and more conscientious citizens. The constructive policies of the league depend upon thorough investigations of subject matters and wise negotiations with the city officials. As civic improvement, however, reduced to its lowest term, comes back to the individual citizens, the Baltimore league believes that the organization plan is an essential part of its work.

DISTRICTS	MEMBERS	
	1912	1913
1	2	8
2	2 & 1 G	2 & 1 G
3	0	1
4	6	10
5	0	1
6	3	9
7	0	4
8	1	3
9	4	7
10	1	1
11	*298*	*430*
12	*63*	*147*
13	*29*	*81*
14	*73*	*168*
15	*41*	*69*
16	*21*	*32*
17	1	2
18	6 & 1 G	6 & 1 G
19	5	7
20	1 G	5 & 2 G
21	3	3
22	3 & 1 G	3 & 1 G
23	0	0
24	0	2
Unclassified..		5
	561 & 4 G	1,006 & 6 G
Suburbs......	45	85
Groups.......	167	385
	773	1,476

Harlean James.[1]

* * *

The Fifth Avenue Association of New York.—All civic organizations charged with the protection of particular localities or districts must necessarily be more or less alike in their make-up and in their work. There are nevertheless some important differences between the Fifth Avenue Association and other bodies of its general class. As there is one only Fifth Avenue and as it is in a very real sense a national institution, the association has been able to draw to itself perhaps the most representative membership of any organization of its kind in the world.

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[1] Executive Secretary, Women's Civic League of Baltimore.

The association was the outcome of a spontaneous movement among the number of merchants who suddenly realized that one of the world's greatest shopping centers was springing up about them and that they ought to combine for their common advantage. But it has long since become very much more than an organization committed solely to the interests of its special locality. Its active workers include not only most of the leading property owners, business men and residents of the avenue and of the best retail section of Manhattan, but men and women in nearly every station in life, many of whom neither have any property nor trade interests in the thoroughfare nor ever expect to have.

To the latter class and to the public at large, the association stands not alone for the preservation and betterment of America's foremost street but it represents certain definite tendencies towards bettering not only New York, but all cities in the future. Because it does stand for these things, because the public understands that the fight for Fifth Avenue is in reality a fight for New York itself, the association scarcely ever appeals in vain to public sentiment when seeking to bring about a needed reform or betterment.

In one sense of the word the association is a neighborhood organization. But there is nowhere else in the world a civic organization of this kind covering so widespread a section as the long stretch of Manhattan Island lying between Washington Square and the far northern confines of Central Park. The very size of the district, the manifold complex problems continually presented in a street of Fifth Avenue's length in the heart of cosmopolitan Manhattan suggest that the association is in a class entirely by itself.

The association is elastic in its methods of work, has no hard and fast rules of action, rides no one's hobbies for him but is always willing to lend a ready ear to anyone who has an idea for a Fifth Avenue or other civic improvement. It maintains permanent headquarters in the heart of the shopping section and acts as a clearing-house for information and data of all kinds dealing with Fifth Avenue matters.

Keeping on good terms with the responsible city officials has from the first been a cardinal part of the association's policy and a great deal that it has been able to accomplish has been due to this fact. One direct result of this policy has been the recent creation of several city commissions, which are now working out plans of great importance to the city. The association is frankly outspoken when matters do not meet with its approval but at the same time it tries not to be hypercritical.

Robert Grier Cooke.[1]

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City Club of Hartford, Conn.—A social club with restaurant features has been organized in Hartford, Conn., under this title. It is to be regretted that a title that has come to represent connection with civic work in some one or another phase has been utilized for an organization having no connection with civic work of any kind.

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[1] President of the Association.

VI. EDUCATIONAL AND ACADEMIC

The City History Club of Boston.—To assume responsibility calls for training to meet it. The chemist is trained in the laboratory, the geologist in the field, and the social worker by contact with human life. In the earlier part of the last century young men learned in the meetings of the village lyceum, which became almost a distinctive American institution, how to take part in larger public activities. Society was more homogeneous, cities were only large towns, and their government was not so much a vital problem. It is scarcely more than a generation since the country felt its first great wave of indignation at the exposure of the Tweed ring in New York. Like a kaleidoscopic change society has become cosmopolitan over night. Rural districts are depleted; cities are congested. In place of the fourteen million people living in the larger towns and cities in 1880 there are now about forty-four millions.

The new American must be trained in citizenship. His enthusiasm for his adopted country is not enough. Along with a new tongue, he must learn new customs, laws and institutions. We have a double duty, to train those who know nothing or little of American ways and also those of the earlier American stock who care little what happens until graft and incompetency threaten our civic life.

Two instances may be cited, as showing prevailing conditions among young men and voters today. In the course of the recent strike of employees of the Boston Elevated Railway about eighty young car men of various races met frequently to consider the questions involved. After the settlement of the strike some of them expressed a wish to continue the group as a literary and debating club. They did not, however, know how to organize and conduct such a club, and consequently disbanded. Several years ago when a fiercely fought contest was on in Boston over the annual election a committee of three conspicuous citizens, one of whom has since been chosen as governor of Massachusetts, sent a letter of appeal to eleven hundred voters who were supposed to be deeply interested in the election of good men to office. When the election took place only one hundred and eighty of these voters appeared to cast their ballots. The ward boss, however, and the city demagogue did not lack votes. Self-interest brought their supporters to the polls in overwhelming numbers. A campaign of education was needed among those who would have voted for the right if they had come out to the voting booth. The strong appeal even of men of the highest standing failed to move them. Happily this condition is changing in Boston, through such organizations as the work of the public school associations, the good government association, the municipal league, and the finance commission.

The training given by the public schools has long followed general lines, and boys passing out of these schools need further preparation for taking up the duties of citizenship. Very many boys and young men, however, of the incoming races, have not attended our schools at all, and there is a consequently greater need for fitting them to become a part of the body politic.

Nor can settlement houses well give this preparation for American citizenship. It calls for special work, by persons who have become masters of civic questions. It is distinctly a work in civics, a study not yet well formulated even in the schools. It may best be done by means of a study of local history and government.

Therefore come the name and method of the City History Club of Boston. It began, in 1904, by applying the lessons of local history to a civic end, a more patriotic, enlightened, and efficient citizenship. Groups of boys in all parts of the city, branches of the larger central organization, were assembled in indoor meetings and taken on historic trips throughout the city and greater Boston. Solid class work was done; elaborate note books were kept; exhibitions of the work were given; mass meetings with speakers and stereopticon were held; outings and social gatherings were enjoyed.

The City History Club of Boston was the second organization of its kind in the United States. That in New York was the first. More recently organizations have been formed in Philadelphia, Savannah, and several other cities in the New England and middle states.

The work of the City History Club at the present time is carried on with groups of young men organized as junior city councils. These were added to the work six years ago and their success has been unbroken. They follow the exact organization of the Boston city council under the new charter. In each council are elected, in regular order, from the young men, a president, clerk, assistant clerk, and sergeant-at-arms; and a full list of committees is appointed, making each councilman, outside of those elected to office, the chairman of a committee. Under the oversight of the director, the members of the council introduce motions, orders, and resolutions, and take an active part in committee work, in debate upon the floor, and in all that has to do with the passing of orders and city ordinances. The results are much more marked than in a debating club under ordinary conditions. The lively interest in subjects under discussion, the freedom of debate allowed, and the incentive brought to bear upon every young man as a member of a serious, public-spirited organization, produce most satisfactory results.

The young men who are members of the councils must know all particulars of city government and be familiar with the various features of the city charter. They must at least know about city officials and public men and movements for good government and civic betterment. Some of the members have made very commendable studies of city affairs and departments. A feature of the council work is a committee on publication in each. This committee visits the office of each department of city government and obtains all available publications upon the working of the department. It sends also to other cities for similar published material. Thus in each council there is gathered a considerable library of material dealing with city affairs and city government, which is in constant use by the council members for individual information, and for argument in debate.

The subjects for study and debate in the junior councils are just such matters as come up in the Boston city council; for instance, improvements of various kinds in all parts of the city, the consolidation of several departments into a single department, suggested amendments to the city charter, the repeal of the poll tax law, the granting of public franchises, the establishment of a municipal lodging house, the annexation of neighboring towns or cities to the city of Boston, and questions having to do with the elevated railway.

An important and natural development of the work with the junior city councils is the City History Club congress which was organized in 1910. The membership of this congress is made up of the most ambitious and able members of the councils, past and present, and of young men who are attracted by the congress itself. Its organization and procedure follow those of the state legislature and of the national congress. The questions considered are those of larger city and state interest, or of state and national interest. This congress affords the very best training in parliamentary law, in debate, and in logical and right thinking.

The City History Club has completed nine years of continuous work in Boston. The boys with whom it first began in the various social and educational centers of the city have grown to manhood.

The club has kept pace with the needs of these young men, working solely for training in good citizenship. The young men thus trained in the club branches through these nine years have exerted a strong influence for good citizenship and good government. They have been conspicuous as leaders in the various sections of the city. Being informed on public matters, and patriotic in spirit, they have caused many of their friends and acquaintances to take a right stand in matters of local and public importance. They have assisted in the naturalization of foreign-born citizens, in the registration of voters, and in bringing them to the polls to vote. Directly and indirectly they have earnestly supported the work of organizations for good government. Their influence has had weight in city legislation, resulting in local improvements in various parts of the city.

Each year men prominent in city affairs, members of the Boston city council, and of the state legislature have spoken before the junior city councils. At such meetings the audiences have included many young men outside of the membership of the councils. Thus our earlier plan of mass meetings in each center of our work has been continued.

There have been many individual cases of marked leadership. One young man, an Italian, while not a voter, interviewed two hundred of his race before a recent election, leading them to vote for the candidate of the municipal league. This young man has since organized and is now president of an active local improvement association.

Another young junior city council member last year made a voluntary systematic investigation in four sections of the city, upon the attitude of the public as to opening playgrounds on Sunday. He has now been chosen as director of a house just opened to aid the Italian immigrant to find himself in Boston. These are not isolated cases. The City History Club is preparing many such young men to be leaders of their fellows in the perplexing conditions of the American city.

With each year there has been a constant increase in membership in the various branches of the club, and new branches have been organized in important centers as openings occurred. The settlement houses have coöperated in providing places of meeting for many of the groups. Some of our councils are meeting in the evening centers lately opened for neighborhood work in the public school buildings of Boston. In the nine years' time work has been carried on with about one hundred branch clubs, enrolling about twenty-five hundred boys and men. In all cases meetings have been held weekly, of from one to two hours' duration each, and effective and thorough methods of work have been followed. From the beginning, even when dealing largely with matters of history, the aim has been to make the work distinctly civic.

After sharing in this movement for several years the City History Club has now assumed the conduct of the new voters' rally in Boston. Each year, in March, a great meeting of young men about to cast their first ballot is held in Faneuil Hall. Prominent men speak, and the "freeman's oath" is administered by a judge of the courts. Altogether the assumption of the ballot is marked by a most impressive and significant observance, the culmination of the year's work of the City History Club.

The City History Club is preëminently the young men's civic club of Boston. It is training the civic leaders and the legislators of the future.

FREDERICK J. ALLEN.[1]

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Boston City History Club Stimulating Civic Interest Among Young Men.—To develop an interest in civic affairs among the young men of the city, the City History Club of Boston, through the financial assistance of the Massachusetts Society of Colonial Dames of America, is offering to the members of the junior city councils, prizes of fifteen and ten dollars for essays touching upon subjects related to town and city history in Massachusetts. The first four subjects selected for the essays are: "Suffrage in Massachusetts before the Revolution;" "What a Town Could do in Massachusetts before the Revolution;" "Witchcraft in Salem Affairs;" and "The Apostle Eliot."

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[1] Director, City History Club, and investigator of occupations, Vocation Bureau, Boston. See article on "The Vocation Bureau and the Boston School System," NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. ii, p. 108.

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A Municipal Survey as University Graduate Work.—An interesting study has recently been completed by William B. Hamilton at the University of Texas in fulfilment of the requirements for a master's degree in municipal government. Mr. Hamilton undertook singlehanded a social survey of the city of Austin from the sanitary side, under the guidance of Prof. Herman G. James of the school of government.

Beginning early in the fall of 1912 Mr. Hamilton made a personal inspection of all dairies, bakeries and slaughter houses of the city and examined the source of the water supply, other than that furnished by the city, as well as investigating the sewerage of the city as a whole. A partial investigation into the housing problem and the bill-board evil completed the examination portion of the study. A suggested reorganization of the health department contained in large part the conclusions which were drawn by Mr. Hamilton from his investigation.

Austin is a city of some 40,000 inhabitants which prides itself on the healthfulness of its location. The result of the study made by Mr. Hamilton was to show that while in point of climate, water supply and natural location Austin is singularly blessed, yet as regards human measures for the prevention of danger to health inevitably connected with the aggregation of numbers of people in a city, next to nothing had been done.

Only a small proportion of the houses in the city are connected with the sewer system, which has just been transferred from private ownership to the city. Many open drains and ditches offer breeding places for mosquitoes; cesspools are found in close proximity to surface wells and dry closets in many instances line the alleys. Trash is collected by the city but in an imperfect way, and garbage is not collected at all but left to the house occupiers to dispose of. Nevertheless much garbage is thrown by persons into the trash receivers, collected by the city wagons and thrown into open dumps frequently in well settled portions of the city.

With regard to the milk supply, every stage of handling of the milk from milking to delivery to the customer was investigated and it was found that in no case were all the modern sanitary requirements for handling milk observed. Sometimes the cows were not kept clean, sometimes the milking room was filthy and full of flies, sometimes the milk receivers were imperfectly washed and the employees themselves dirty, sometimes the milk was not cooled before starting out for delivery, sometimes it was transferred from open vessels on the route or even poured into unwashed bottles collected on the road, and sometimes all of these elements were found combined in the business of a single dairy.

The bakeries were perhaps even worse from a sanitary standpoint and not one could be said even to approximate to the standard of a sanitary bakery. From the mixing room, often at the same time the bed-room of the baker and his family, to the actual delivery at the door the bread was continually exposed to filth and microbes.

Still worse if possible were found to be the conditions in the half dozen or more slaughtering houses that furnish the butchers of the city with their meat.

The description of conditions at these slaughtering houses was enough to turn all readers into vegetarians. After the meat is delivered at the butchers sanitary conditions are not improved. Mr. Hamilton concluded his investigation with an examination of the housing conditions in the crowded Mexican and negro quarters of the town, and also pointed out briefly some aspects of the bill-board nuisance.

After pointing out these undesirable conditions Mr. Hamilton sought to discover the reasons for their existence. He found that in large part it was due to a failure to enforce laws and ordinances already in existence. This in turn he attributed for the most part to a faulty organization of the health department by which duties that would require the whole time of a number of men were imposed upon a few men, paid to give a part of their time only. Aside from this defect it was found that not sufficient powers were given to the city, and that state health laws bearing on these subjects were either inadequate or not enforced.

Perhaps the most interesting and certainly the most encouraging fact about the whole investigation was that although the avowed purpose of the undertaking was to discover and make public the unsanitary conditions allowed to prevail in the city—and as has been shown they were of a kind to make any city ashamed—yet the mayor and his colleagues and more remarkable still, the Chamber of Commerce, an organization for advertising and boosting the city, both materially aided and encouraged Mr. Hamilton in his undertaking. These persons even offered to pay the expense of publishing the investigation for distribution among the inhabitants of the city.

With such a spirit of civic pride and interest it is not too much to predict that the needed reforms will be undertaken without delay and as soon as the investigation, which at present writing is being published as a University of Texas bulletin, is placed in the hands of the citizens of Austin there will be no opposition to voting bonds for a municipal slaughter house and an incinerating plant or to raising funds for other improvements as suggested in Mr. Hamilton's study.

Aside from still further confirming the now universally accepted proposition that the first step in civic improvement is the enlightenment of the citizens as to actual conditions, this investigation shows that university work on the part of the students as well as of professors can be directed into channels where the public is benefited in a real sense. The students in turn are given a training that will enable them to be real factors in civic improvement in whatever communities they may make their homes after leaving the university.

Herman G. James.

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Cologne Exposition.—Last year it was Düsseldorf in Germany, this year it is Cologne that has sought at one and the same time to interest and instruct her own people in municipal affairs and attract visitors. From July to November last year the former city held an exposition of her municipal institutions, which embraced plans and models of the newest inventions and appliances in regard to city administration, the enlargement, improvement and embellishment of cities, creation of parks, squares, manufacturing and workmen's quarters, public buildings, water works, baths, rapid transit, hospitals, places of amusement, cemeteries, etc. The highest point of interest was reached in September, when a congress of municipal methods was held, which to a certain extent was international in character, because it was a general exchange of opinions and a discussion of methods "by which the greatest degree of perfection in city building and management may be attained."

To educate its people as to the needs of the city and the steps to be taken to meet the needs, prizes were offered for the best solution of this problem. For these the foremost architects and builders of the city competed, and their plans and models were displayed at the public exposition.

This year the old Hanseatic city—Cologne, which has grown from 49,276 population in 1816 to 545,000, and soon will reach 620,000, when the annexation of Mülheim is completed, has as a city a municipal exhibition, which she calls "Cologne Old and New." It appears, as the editor of the *London Municipal Journal* writes, after a visit to the exhibition, "that some of the Cologne taxpayers were inclined to grumble at the Cologne taxes (we have heard of people in England who grumble at having to pay English rates.") So the officers of the municipality conceived the idea of a purely municipal exhibition illustrating the work of the city by means of models, pictures, diagrams, plans and charts, and showing the citizens the value they receive in return for their money. These were somewhat on the plan of our American budget exhibits, only they were designed to show what was done with the money after it was spent, whereas, the American exhibits are designed to educate the people to demand the appropriation of adequate sums. The exhibits are housed in a building specially prepared for the purpose, and they are wonderfully interesting and are being visited every week by thousands of the Cologne taxpayers. The grumblers are silenced, and it is expected that the grateful citizens will shortly rise in a body and demand a general increase in the salaries and emoluments of the city. "We have visited," the editor says, "other exhibitions in Germany, but none quite like this one at Cologne, and it occurs to us that it will be a thousand pities if the valuable models, pictures, and charts that constitute its most attractive feature are destroyed or packed away in storehouses after the exhibition closes in October." At various cities in Germany, America, and England, there are in existence valuable models, etc., "which illustrate the works of ancient and modern municipalities in a way that cannot be done even by books. If they were all got together there would be at hand the nucleus of one of the most interesting international exhibitions the world has ever seen."

In Ghent, Belgium, such an exhibition has been carried on throughout the summer, carrying forward the work of the town planning congresses. The scope of this Second World's Congress of International Associations was described in the April issue of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW.[1]

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The Pittsburgh Board of Public Education on Friday, June 6, dismissed S. L. Heeter, superintendent of the schools of that city. The cause of his removal was a charge of "immorality in making improper advances and taking unwarranted liberties with women." The charges against Mr. Heeter were investigated by a citizen's committee appointed by the board. This committee included such men as A. Leo Weil, president of the Voters' League; W. H. Stevenson, president of the Chamber of Commerce; Bishop Cortland Whitehead, of the Episcopal church; the Rev. George W. Shelton, president of the Ministerial Association; Rabbi J. Leonard Levy and Valentine Barie, president of the Iron Molders' Union.

The charges against Mr. Heeter came at a time when the political enemies of the present school were demanding another change in the school system. Under the school code, passed by the state legislature two years ago, the school management of Pittsburgh was placed in the hands of a board of fifteen members, appointed by the judges of the common pleas court. Two bills were introduced in the legislature then in session to make the board elective. While the superintendent's guilt or innocence had nothing to do with the question of an elective or appointive board, it was attempted to make this scandal a part of the fight against the code. Both measures in the legislature, however, failed to pass and Pittsburgh's school management will continue under the appointive board for two years more at least. During this time the present board of control should be able to complete many plans for reform that are now under way.

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[1] Page 310.

The present appointive board has been in charge of Pittsburgh's schools less than two years and has done much to reorganize the entire school system. For the progress already made Mr. Heeter was largely responsible and it will be difficult to find a man of equal ability as a school executive.

Pittsburgh's old school system was shot through with mismanagement and graft. So widespread were these conditions that the Voters' League two years ago exposed them. This exposition had much to do with the establishment of the present system. Under the old system many buildings were unsafe as well as unsanitary. There was an actual lack of buildings. The courses of study in the elementary schools served chiefly as a preparation for high school where classical courses predominated. Little attention had been given to manual training or to the education of the foreigner or of the defective. Few evening schools were conducted. No attempt has been made to meet the educational needs of a manufacturing center.

The new board immediately after its appointment set about to remedy these conditions. Old buildings wherever possible were put in good condition, and others closed. Twenty-nine temporary buildings were erected and a complete building program to include four district high schools and eleven elementary schools commenced.

Night schools were opened both in the high school and elementary grades. On account of the increased facilities and new schools there was a large increase in school attendance during the year. In the night schools the attendance more than doubled.

A new system of grading was established, permitting half year promotions, and all students who made a satisfactory showing in their term's work were relieved from examinations. All school courses, which had lead chiefly to college preparatory work, were revised to meet the needs of an industrial community. Practical courses in commercial, vocational, industrial, household economy, arts and craft work have been added. In addition, special schools have been established for children of foreign parentage unfamiliar with the English language and rooms have been set apart for defectives and those suffering from tuberculosis. For those failing in a term's work free summer schools in all grades have been opened. Finally a high school has been opened, giving a briefer course to cover two years for those who are unable to give four years to the work. TENSARD DEWOLF.[1]

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The Training of Secretaries for Commercial Organizations is a new line of work to be taken up by Harvard University through the graduate school of administration. Young men in doubt as to what they ought to do for a life work will do well to consider the opportunities this field presents. The increased activity of chambers of commerce, boards of trade and similar bodies during the last few years, together with an appreciation of the breadth of the field opened to these bodies for their work, has made the work of the secretary more and more exacting from year to year. Those who have grown up in chamber of commerce work and have kept pace with the extension of this work are able to take care of the new demands made upon them without great difficulty. But from all over the country there is coming a demand for adequately prepared men to take the place of those who have grown up with the business and who for one reason or another have left it.

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[1] Secretary, Voters League of Pittsburgh.

The special value of the Harvard course for commercial secretaries is that it will first give a training in general business matters and then a special training. There is so much room for well trained men in business at the present time, that no man need hesitate relative to the course for fear that there will be no opening when he has completed it.

In the first year the following general subjects may be studied: business law, accounting, industrial organization, business statistics, railroad organization, investments.

In the second year the following general subjects may be selected: corporation finance, the railroad and the shipper, foreign trade, European trade, South American trade.

The various forms of activity in which chambers of commerce and similar bodies engage are also to be studied in the light of the actual experience of some of the more progressive organizations. The subjects covered include various aspects of the supervision of trading, such as inspection of grain and other commodities, control of warehouses, vigilance work, etc. They also include some of the methods for city development employed by trade bodies, such as methods for securing new industries, methods for bettering existing industrial conditions, railway rate activity, internal transportation problems, etc. The course also provides for a comparison of the organization and powers of chambers of commerce and similar bodies in the United States with those in some of the chief European countries and a survey of the federation movement both in the United States and abroad. The work of this course will be supplemented by experience in committee work in the Boston and other chambers of commerce. ELLIOT H. GOODWIN.[1]

Bureau of Municipal Research and Reference at the University of Texas.—The University of Texas has now been added to the list of American universities conducting municipal research and reference bureaus. This new addition was organized in June, 1913, under the auspices of the school of government at the university. Prof. Herman G. James, in charge of the courses in municipal government at the university and a member of the advisory editorial board of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, has been made director of the new enterprise. He is assisted by William M. Hamilton, a fellow in government, who wrote his master's thesis in municipal government at the university last year.

A special appropriation has been set aside for books and other equipment of the bureau, to which will be transferred also the entire municipal government division of the university library. The immediate purpose of the bureau will be two-fold; to serve as information bureau for the municipalities of the state, and to offer opportunities for graduate research work to the students in city government at the university. It is planned to extend the scope of the work at the earliest possible date so as to include special investigations at the request of particular cities into their local conditions, and the furnishing of expert advice on the ground by qualified members of the various university faculties.

Municipal problems present an unusually fertile field just now in Texas not only because that state as the home of the commission form of government has had the longest experience with it, but especially because of the recent adoption of a home rule charter amendment to the constitution. Under that amendment and the legislative acts in pursuance of the same many of the Texas cities will now be framing and adopting new charters and will be greatly in need of just the sort of information the bureau is intended to furnish.

In connection with the establishment of the bureau a movement has been launched by the director for the organization of a league of Texas municipalities to have its first convention in Austin in the fall. This league will proceed upon lines substantially similar to those pursued by similar leagues in other states, and although Texas has a population three fourths rural and the other fourth living in cities of less than 125,000 inhabitants, it is thought such a league will prove quite as helpful there as in the states with larger cities.

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[1] Secretary, Chamber of Commerce of the United States.

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The National Municipal League's High School Prizes for 1913 were awarded as follows: First prize to David E. Barton, Walnut Hills, Cincinnati, High School; second prize to J. G. Mitchell MacCartney, of the Altoona, Pa., High School. The subject was "The Milk Supply in My City" and the judges were John Spargo, Yonkers, N. Y., and Prof. Selskar M. Gunn, of the Massachusetts Institutute of Technology. Sixty-one essays in all were submitted. Honorable mention was made of the essays submitted by Misses Jessie M. Webb, Ida Fowler Mealy, Marie A. McCann, Western High School, Baltimore; Althea Oyster, Alliance, Ohio; Howard H. Weber, York, Pa., Misses Ethel E. Tomb, Johnstown, Pa., Eleanor Turner, Marshall (Texas) High Schools.

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Meyer Lissner of Los Angeles, a member of the council of the National Municipal League, has established a National Municipal Prize of $100 for the year 1914, open to students at the Occidental and Southern California Universities and to students of the Los Angeles public schools above high school grade. The subject will be: "The Best Charter for Los Angeles."

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A Municipal University for Akron, Ohio.—The directors of the chamber of commerce of Akron have unanimously recommended that the city council should transform into a municipal university Buchtel College which was recently offered to the city by the trustees of the institution. If the council heeds the advice of the directors, Akron will join that growing list of cities which boast of municipal universities.

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The Wisconsin Library School.—The library school of the Wisconsin library commission in coöperation with the University of Wisconsin is prepared to offer a twelve months course in library administration and public service. This work will be given in connection with the other courses in the university and is undertaken to meet the demand of young men and women in colleges and universities who have an interest in municipal, political, industrial and sociological problems and their solution without a definite desire to enter distinct philanthropic work but who desire to become library workers in legislative and municipal reference libraries, law and medical libraries, bureaus of investigation, tax associations, industrial commissions, boards of public utilities, commercial houses, manufacturing plants and other similar fields where knowledge of subject matter is of greater importance than a preliminary mastery of library technique. In the School about one-third of the time will be devoted to bibliographic and technical courses corresponding closely to those now given in the best library schools of the United States. These will include reference work, subject bibliography, book selection, the acquisition of material on current problems, public documents, cataloguing, alphabeting, classification and library economy. Approximately one-third of the time will be devoted to courses selected from those now given at the University of Wisconsin, the nature of which will depend upon the particular branch of library work in which the student expects to go. The remaining one-third of the work for the year will be in the form of special lectures on political science, political economy, historical, scientific, literary and other subjects. In addition to the regular roster, practice apprentice work in the libraries of Madison and vicinity will be required throughout the academic year. The course will be directly in charge of Clarence B. Lester, who founded and organized the Indiana legislative reference department and conducted it for two years.

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The Chicago Reference Library.—A little more than a year ago a section of the public library of Chicago was set aside for materials on government, administration, and economics. This material has now been considerably augmented and kindred books classified in such a way as to make a veritable municipal reference library. A card index of the library is established at the city hall, and a messenger service is maintained so that now, as the Chicago *Post* puts it, "the lightest literary wish of the alderman may be quickly satisfied." Chicago ordinances are classified under the name of the alderman standing sponsor for them so that the citizen may easily find out what his representative in the council had been doing during his term of service. Thus, it is hoped, the "system of illumination in the city council chamber may be improved."

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Cincinnati will hereafter make an effort to put out its department reports in an attractive, intelligent, even popular form, and to that end Mayor Hunt has appointed a municipal editor. In the past, as is the case with the reports of most cities, the official reports have been bulky, voluminous, uninteresting and unintelligent. It is Mayor Hunt's idea that these reports should be made helpful to the public and to fellow officials and a clear and succinct accounting of the city departments for the year. Consequently, all unnecessary statistics will be eliminated and introductory and explanatory remarks will be designed to illuminate rather than submerge. It is also to be the duty of the editor to devise reports that will tell the department heads and the mayor the important features of the work of each department without confronting them with a mass of small details or unenlightening statements. The position is to be officially known as mayor inspector.

VII. SOCIAL AND MISCELLANEOUS

Public Health Notes.—*A Conference on Infant Welfare* was held at Albany, N. Y., on June 12, under the auspices of the state department of health. Besides general addresses by the governor, by Dr. Eugene H. Porter, state commissioner of health, and others, there were reports on infant welfare work in Buffalo, Rochester, New York and some of the smaller cities of the State. The proceedings of the Conference have been issued as a special bulletin of the New York state department of health (Albany, N. Y.).

All Milk Sold in Philadelphia after July 1, 1914, must either be "pasteurized by a process approved by the board of health" or else "certified and guaranteed by an authority approved by the board of health." Pasteurized milk must be "placed in a container approved by the board of health."

A New Milk Ordinance for Hagerstown, Md., is reported as having been unanimously adopted by the council on August 14, after vigorous protests against it by local dairymen. Except that the ordinance provides that dairy cows must be free from tuberculosis, or proven by the tuberculin test, it appears to be too easy rather than too hard in its requirements, particularly if the reports are correct that the bacterial limit is a half million per cubic centimeter and that the milk must be kept at a temperature of (*only*) 70 F. until delivered to consumers. A lower temperature would aid materially in keeping down the bacterial count. Press reports state that on failing to defeat the ordinance the dairymen at once resolved to increase the price of milk from 6 to 7 cents a quart. A still higher price would be warranted for safe milk of proper richness, unless milk can be produced at a much lower figure at Hagerstown than at most other places.

Milk Standards. A second and revised report on standards for various classes of milk supplies was adopted at Richmond, Va., on May 2 and 3,[1] by the commission on milk standards. This commission was appointed in March, 1911, by the New York milk committee. It consists of seventeen well known federal, state and local health officers, veterinarians, chemists, bacteriologists and sanitarians. Its chairman is Dr. W. A. Evans, formerly health commissioner of Chicago, and now professor of preventive medicine, Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill., and health editor of the Chicago *Tribune*. The report contains a full set of standards for use in producing and judging safe milk.

Immunization Against Typhoid Fever, sometimes called anti-typhoid vaccination, is now offered by some city boards of health without charge. New York City began the practice on January 1, through members of its own staff. Choice may be had between inoculation at home and at the office of the health department, or the culture will be supplied free to physicians for use in their own practice. The last-named plan became effective at Montclair, N. J., also, at the beginning of 1913.

A Health Handbook for Colored People was issued early in 1913 by the Virginia state board of health. Perhaps the most notable thing about the handbook is that it was prepared at the request of the Negro Organization Society (J. M. Gandy, executive secretary, Petersburg, Va.). Most of the suggestions in the handbook relate to household cleansing, the disposal of wastes and home water-supplies, all written from the rural or village rather than the urban viewpoint. There are also some good suggestions for personal hygiene, under the heading "cautions for the Colored Man." It is somewhat amusing to find among these "cautions," "Do all the work you can." The handbook (really a thin pamphlet) contains many valuable hints but it is a pity so little discrimination is shown between measures which vitally affect health and those which relate to mere tidiness and good housekeeping.

Advertising for Sanitary Inspectors, as for other municipal administrative officers, is common in England. In a recent number of *The Municipal Journal* (London) applications are invited for the position of assistant sanitary inspector of Richmond (*Surrey*). It was stated that "candidates must have had experience in the duties of the office, and must possess the certificate of some properly constituted examining authority" [as the Royal Sanitary Institute, presumably]. The salary offered was a little less than $450 a year, rising about $50 a year to a maximum of somewhat less than $650 a year. At the same time the city of Liverpool advertised for a female sanitary inspector, not over 35 years of age, "able to produce evidence of training and acquaintance with domestic sanitation, the care of infants, and allied subjects." Wages for this position would begin at $7.10 a week and rise "by stages" to $9.70 a week. Each advertisement contained the usual warning to the effect that "canvassing members of the Council [soliciting the appointment] will be regarded as a disqualification."

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[1] See U. S. Public Health Reports, August 22, 1913.

The Century.—First under the brilliant leadership of the late Richard Watson Gilder, a long time member of the National Municipal League, and later under Robert Underwood Johnson, sometime member, *The Century* has been a sturdy and intelligent upholder of high standards of civic life and activity. Judging from the salutatory of the new editor—Robert Sterling Yard—the magazine will continue and broaden its interest in all things making for civic and social uplift, for in it he says:

> There is no escaping the fact that civilization, like the river tumbling and swirling between two lakes, is passing turbulently from the old contention of the last several generations to the unknown, almost unguessable contention of the not distant future. The feminist movement, the uprising of labor, the surging of innumerable socialistic currents, can mean nothing else than the certain readjustment of social levels. The demand of the people for the heritage of the bosses is not short of revolution. The rebellious din of frantic impressionistic groups is nothing if not strenuous protest against a frozen art. The changed Sabbath and the tempered sermon mark the coldly critical appraisement of religious creeds. And science, meantime, straining and sweating under the lash of progress, is passing from wonder unto wonder.
>
> Perhaps Mr. Gilder's period of literary flowering, though surely coming, must be postponed another decade. The need of the moment is to discover where we are, what is accomplishing about us. Where have all these struggling activities brought us? What have they really done? What do they mean? Whither do they tend?
>
> It is time we look this question of the present squarely in the eye, in order, if for no other reason, that we may intelligently face the future. It is time that, in business phrase, we take account of stock. It is time that the chemist, for example, trembling over the revelations of his amazing combinations, know that the psychologist, too, is excited about the astonishing developments of his own laboratory; that the elated conquerors of the air realize the achievement of those who plod in the groaning shops of town; that the biologist, amazed at his artificial propagation of life, appreciate the telegraphic annihilation of space. . . . .
>
> Not as an advocate shall we present these causes, nor again in protest; but in the fair, free, unbiased spirit of investigation. Facts must precede opinions. It is poor rowing against the rapids between the lakes. Let us study these manifestations fairly and sympathetically before we draw conclusions. It will be *The Century's* pleasure and public duty to enlist the services of able authorities in every cause, and to present each justly from its own point of view.
>
> Such a program will, we feel sure, help materially the cause of human progress because it will help men and women to comprehend life as it passes.

A cordial welcome to Mr. Yard, not only to the major editorial ranks, but likewise to the ever enlarging *corps élite* as Richard Watson Gilder so happily phrased it, in the realm of social and civic endeavor.

C. R. W.

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A Social Center for Colored People in Chicago.—As a result of the enthusiasm of a young colored woman, Miss Clotee Scott, provision has been made for a social center for the colored people of Hyde Park, Chicago, by the establishment of a neighborhood house on Jefferson Avenue. The new institution is patronized by about three hundred men, women, and children, and offers an important experiment for the consideration of those interested in the advancement of the race, particularly in great cities.

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A New Community Center in Chicago.—The west park commissioners of Chicago have under construction a new field house in Pulaski Park which is in the center of an enormous Polish population. The building is said to be one of the finest of its kind in the country and it will be equipped with all of the arrangements for social and intellectual activities which have been installed in the most enterprising social centers. It will be opened this autumn.

Clean Towns in Texas.—The *Holland Magazine* has offered a prize of $500 for the cleanest town in Texas, and all over the state local leagues are being organized to enter the contest. In Mineral Wells, for example, a federation has laid the town out in several parts, assigned a committee of women to each part, and set to work with the avowed determination to win the prize, and have a clean town in the bargain.

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Municipal Tenements for Widows.—The bureau of charity of Havre, France, has established municipal tenements to be rented to widows who have several small children and are in destitute circumstances. A nominal charge of three francs a month is made for an apartment of three well-ventilated rooms.

VIII. PERSONAL MENTION

President John H. Finley, of the College of the City of New York, has been elected state commissioner of education by the Board of Regents of the University of New York, in succession to the late Andrew S. Draper. Dr. Finley was formerly professor of politics at Princeton.

⁂

William B. Howland, for years an active member of the National Municipal League and at one time a member of its council, has become publisher of *The Independent*, New York, having retired from a similar position on *The Outlook*. Mr. Howland is also treasurer of the American Civic Association.

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Reginald Mott Hull, formerly secretary of the Cambridge Taxpayers' Association (see vol. ii, p. 325), is now a member of the Cambridge council.

⁂

Frederick L. Siddons has been appointed a commissioner of the District of Columbia by President Wilson. He is a well known single taxer and an advocate of the suffrage for the residents of the District. For years he has been a member of the council of the National Civil Service Reform League and at one time was a member of the Executive Committee of the National Municipal League. His colleague is Oliver P. Newman.

⁂

Dr. Graham Taylor, of Chicago Commons and associate editor of *The Survey,* was elected president of the National Conference of Charities and Corrections at the Seattle meeting.

⁂

Edward L. Heydecker, assistant tax commissioner of New York City and chairman of the National Municipal League's committee on sources of municipal revenue, has been appointed by the Governor of New York a member of the commission to codify and revise the tax laws of that state.

⁂

Prof. Richard R. Price has accepted the position of director of the extension division of the University of Minnesota and will in that connection establish a municipal reference bureau similar to the one he conducted while a member of the faculty of the University of Kansas.

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Julius Henry Cohen, a member of the council of the National Municipal League, has issued a pamphlet, entitled "The Protocols in the Coat, Suit and Dress Industry and in the Dress and Waist Industries," outlining what has been done in the last two or three years in the settlement of labor difficulties in these industries and in increasing the sanitary conditions under which the work therein is done.

Elliott Hunt Pendleton, of Cincinnati, editor of the *Citizens' Bulletin* of that place and a leading publicist, and member of the council of the National Municipal League, had the degree of master of arts conferred upon him at the recent Harvard commencement.

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George W. Guthrie, for many years a vice-president of the National Municipal League and recently a member of its council, has been appointed ambassador to Japan by President Wilson.

✤

Mrs. Owen Wister, a member of the National Municipal League from the beginning and at the time of her death president of the Philadelphia Civic Club, died suddenly at her summer home at Saunderstown, R. I., on August 24. Mrs. Wister, who was the wife of Owen Wister, the well known novelist, was an active and aggressive factor in the social and civic life of Philadelphia, and her death will not only come as a severe shock to all who knew and admired her, but will be a distinct loss to every forward movement, not only in the city of Philadelphia, but in the country at large. Mrs. Wister, who was a young woman at the time of her death, had however a long line of credits to her account. She was chairman of the committee on civics of the State Federation of Women's Clubs. She was one of the two founders of the Civic Club and was active in the Philadelphia Conference for Good City Government, out of which the National Municipal League grew. Her references to this fact at the Los Angeles meeting constituted one of the most interesting phases of a very interesting occasion.

✤

Charles Mulford Robinson has been chosen professor for the chair of civic design in the University of Illinois. This is the first designated professorship in this subject in the United States. As Mr. Robinson was unwilling to accept a resident professorship, the University authorities have graciously put him on part time so as to leave him free to carry on his practical work in city planning. It is interesting to note that in the choice of the title the University of Illinois followed the English precedent. The course will be included in the landscape gardening division of the college of agriculture. In the same connection we might point out that a course in landscape gardening was offered in Illinois in 1868, being probably the first in this country. In number of students it is one of the largest, if not the largest, in the country.

DEPARTMENT OF LEGISLATION AND JUDICIAL DECISIONS

Edited by John A. Lapp

Legislative Reference Department of the Indiana State Library

Richard W. Montague, Esq., Portland, Ore.

In charge of Judicial Decisions

Civil Service Legislation.—*Ohio.* The most important gain during the past few months for the merit system has been in Ohio, where a comprehensive civil service law has been enacted. This was the result of the adoption last September (by a majority of over 100,000) of a constitutional amendment requiring that appointments and promotions in the civil service shall be made for merit and fitness. The only opposition to the bill came from the spoilsmen and the state librarians, who opposed the provision placing the staffs of the several libraries on a competitive basis. Their opposition was such that the bill was amended before final passage and the librarians were placed in the unclassified service.

The new law applies to the service of the state, its counties, cities and city school districts. A civil service commission of three members appointed by the governor for overlapping terms of six years has jurisdiction over the services of the state and its counties. The services of the municipalities are placed under the control of the local authorities. The state commission is, however, given supervisory authority over the local boards and may investigate their administration of the law at any time.

The new act, for which the Cleveland Civic League was largely responsible, provides for the appointment by the mayor (or the chief appointing authority) of three civil service commissioners, to serve for six-year terms. The members of the existing municipal civil service commissions are continued in office for the terms for which they were appointed. Their successors, the first appointees of the chief appointing power, shall be appointed to serve respectively for two, four and six years. Not more than two members of the commission shall be adherents of the same political party. Provision is made for the removal of the commissioners by the chief appointing power on charges after a hearing.

If the appointing power of any of the seventy-two municipalities fails to appoint a municipal commission within sixty days after the passage of the act the state civil service commission shall make the appointments. The state commission can also draft rules for the municipal service if any of the local commissions fail to prepare such rules within six months of the passage of the act.

The public service is divided between the unclassified and the classified classes. The former class includes (1) all elective officers; (2) all heads of departments, boards of commissions designated by the chief appointing power; (3) all officers elected by the general assembly; (4) all election officers; (5) members of the national guard; (6) presidents, superintendents, directors, teachers and instructors in the public schools, colleges and universities; (7) two secretaries, assistants or clerks for each of the elective or principal executive officers, except the civil service commission, authorized by law to appoint a secretary; (8) all deputies acting for the heads of departments; (9) bailiffs of courts of record, and (10) employees and clerks of boards of deputy state supervisors and inspectors of election. The classified service, which is designated the competitive class, includes all other positions.

The law makes provision for the certification of the three highest names on the eligible list for the usual probationary period, at the end of which employees may be removed with the approval of the civil service commission.

In all cases of reductions, suspensions and removals the appointing officer must furnish the subordinate concerned the reasons for the action and give the employee a reasonable time in which to make and file an explanation.

A most important feature of the bill is the provision giving civil service commissions power to make investigations for the purpose of ascertaining the duties prescribed by law and practice for each employee in the classified service and all other facts enabling the commissions to determine the efficiency of the employees. The commissions shall establish grades in the service based upon similarity of duties and salaries and shall standardize employment in each grade. Standards of efficiency to be maintained by the employees shall be fixed by the commissions, which shall report to the heads of departments any failure to maintain satisfactory efficiency records. Such failure on the part of any employee shall be sufficient ground for dismissal.

The civil service commissions are given further power to investigate alleged abuses by the appointing officers. If such charges against the heads of departments are sustained by investigation, the civil service commissions shall so report to the chief appointing power, who is authorized to remove the guilty person after a hearing.

No person holding position in the classified service shall be an officer in any political organization or take part in politics other than to vote and to "express freely his political opinion."

Michigan. The voters of two cities—Detroit and Grand Rapids—have adopted charter amendments placing their services on a competitive basis. The adoption of the amendment in Detroit completes a fight begun over three years ago. It provides for the appointment by the mayor of a civil service commission of four members to serve for four-year terms without salary. A radical provision of the amendment provides that the head of the department, in making promotions and removals, is required to file his reasons with the civil service commission, and the commission may and if requested in writing by the employee concerned, it becomes its duty to make an investigation of the promotion or removal in question. If it develops that the promotion or removal was made for reasons other than for the good of the service, a report to that effect to the appointing officers is sufficient cause for the setting aside of the promotion or for the reinstatement of the employee dismissed.

The charter amendments adopted by the electors of Grand Rapids on April 7 follow the more advanced ideas on civil service administration, in so far as the appointment of the civil service commissioners is concerned. They are appointed by the mayor for overlapping terms of six years each. An efficiency system is provided for, to be under the direction of the civil service commission, which shall establish standards of efficiency in all departments of the city government and all employees are required to render service according to such standards.

Minneapolis. A bill placing the service of Minneapolis on a merit basis passed the Minnesota legislature late in March and has received the approval of Governor Eberhardt. The law affects some 5000 employees and was drafted by the civic and commerce association. The law provides for the appointment by the mayor of a civil service commission of three members for three years to serve without compensation. The appropriation of the commission is safeguarded from the attacks of the spoilsmen by a provision in the law that the city council must appropriate not less than $25 for each 1000 inhabitants of the city.

Denver. The voters had the opportunity on May 20 to adopt an entirely new civil service chapter as an amendment to the charter. Owing to the adoption in February of two poorly drawn charter amendments which provided for the commission form of government there was grave doubt whether city and county employees were guaranteed a permanent tenure during good behavior or were appointed for four-year terms. The Denver civil service reform association has drafted the new section, which provides, among other things, for the appointment by the council of three civil service commissioners to serve for overlapping terms of six years each. Separations from the service are placed entirely in the hands of the civil service commission, which shall sit as an administrative board. Profiting by the experience of the Colorado state commission at the hands of the spoilsmen, provision is made for the annual appropriation by the council of a sum equal to not less than $1000 for each 50,000 inhabitants.

Philadelphia. The Blankenburg commission had been under the fire of disappointed place seekers and a futile attempt was made at Harrisburg to legislate the present commission out of office by establishing an elective civil service commission.

New York State. The legislature has taken a reactionary attitude by passing the so-called Walker removal bill, which affects every competitive employee in the state, county, city and village services. This is the bill, advocated by the organized employees of the state, which not only gives a trial on removal but allows the employee to take his case to the courts by a writ of certiorari. In spite of the fact that many mayors and practically every head of the state and New York City departments were opposed to it, the bill was sent to the governor on the last day of the session by a strict party vote. The civil service reform association and other organizations which opposed the bill have asked the governor for a hearing, as its enactment into law would inevitably break down discipline in the public service and clog the service with incompetents.

Another bill which has become law is intended to give home rule to all cities of New York state. This act, which had the endorsement of the Municipal Government Association and the Citizens Union, was opposed by the Civil Service Reform Association, because its language was so vague that it may admit of a construction which will remove the civil service commission of every city in the state from the supervision of the state civil service commission.[1]

George T. Keyes.[2]

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Municipal Ownership, 1913.—*Philadelphia.* Probably the most important legislation looking to the municipal ownership and operation of public utilities during the state legislative sessions of 1913 was an act authorizing Pennsylvania cities of the first class to "purchase, lease, locate, construct and equip" and "own, use, maintain and operate" street and suburban railways. The act was passed by the Pennsylvania legislature and became a law with the approval of Governor Tener, June 17. It applies only to Philadelphia, the one first class city in the state. The act confers upon the city the right of eminent domain and the right to make physical connections with any privately owned railway. It also provides for the assessment of damages to condemned property. Not only is Philadelphia empowered to acquire, own and operate street railway lines but the city likewise is empowered "To enter into agreements for the construction or operation, or both the construction and operation . . . . including the prescribing and fixing of rates for tranportation . . . . Provided, no such lease, license or operating agreement shall be for a longer period than fifty years." Provision is made further for beginning the work of construction within eighteen months from the date of agreement and for completion of transit facilities within a period fixed by the agreement. Power is conferred upon private corporations to enter into such agreements with the Philadelphia council as are permitted to the city itself.

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[1] See p. 684, National Municipal Review, vol. ii.

[2] Assistant Secretary National Civil Service Reform League.

At least ten states made important additions to the power of municipalities to acquire, own and operate municipal utilities during the legislative sessions of 1913.

New Hampshire instituted a departure in municipal ownership by conferring on cities the right "to vote money to purchase and manage lands for the purpose of growing wood and timber." Timber lands so acquired are to be developed under the direction of the state forester. This act marks a new phase of conservation in so far as its admitted purpose in the very practical one of furnishing firewood to the people. It represents the effort of one state to recover what has been lost in the ruthless waste of timber lands.

Washington, Kansas and North Dakota. Country-wide agitation against the middleman fructified in these states, where municipalities were given power to acquire and operate public markets. In Washington, an act already in force was amended giving cities power "to construct, acquire and operate public markets and one or more cold storage plants for the sale and preservation of butter, eggs, meats, fish, fruits, vegetables and other perishable provisions." Kansas granted to the cities of the first class power to own, operate and regulate market places but the purchase of markets must first have been authorized by the people at a general or special election. In North Dakota, the city council is empowered to purchase, erect, lease, maintain and manage market houses and slaughter houses.

Connecticut, in four special acts, gave to four cities, Hartford, New Haven, South Norwalk and New Britain, the power to own and operate municipal ice houses. The amendment to the charter of South Norwalk also gave the city authority to operate a municipal cold storage.

Wisconsin gave power to all cities to establish and operate ice houses and plants.

Iowa. The operation of garbage disposal plants by cities of 80,000 population or over is authorized by a new statute. A special tax levy for the purpose of acquiring a plant is provided for in the act. The levy can not exceed one mill on the taxable property.

Minnesota. First class cities are empowered to construct union depots, while an *Illinois* statute authorizes cities of less than 500,000 population to levy a tax of not to exceed three mills for the erection of public coliseums. The tax must first be sustained by a referendum vote of the people. *North Dakota* also has a new law, permitting city councils to submit to popular vote the question of a bond issue for municipal auditoriums, armories, public playgrounds, public gymnasiums, public baths, and other places of public amusement or recreation. Under the North Dakota act a limit of 5 per cent on the assessed valuation fixes the amount of the bond issues, except by a two-thirds vote the electors may extend the limit three per cent. All bonds must be sold at par.

New Hampshire. A new act authorizes cities to operate publicly owned lighting systems. An amendment to an *Iowa* act permits municipalities engaged in the operation of heating, water, gas, light and power plants to dispose of their product outside the city limits and to private individuals or corporations. *Kansas* abolished the "fair margin of profit upon capital invested" as a factor in determining rates for water furnished by municipal plants. Only operating expenses, interest, sinking fund, depreciation, improvements and repairs and loss of taxes incident to municipal ownership are to be considered as rate factors.

The *Illinois* legislature passed a general act authorizing cities of all classes to acquire, own, operate and lease public utilities after an affirmative referendum vote. Construction and operation are subject to separate referendums under the act. Leases for a longer period than five years must be subjected to referendum when petitioned for by ten per cent of the voters. A special act was also passed giving to Chicago the right to own and operate harbors and docks. A general act authorizes cities of all classes to levy a "levee tax" of not to exceed $1 on each $100 of assessed valuation for the construction of levees in districts imperiled by floods.

New Jersey provided for the establishment of public comfort stations by municipalities in 1913.

Viewed by comparison with legislation of other years, 1913 may be regarded as having been particularly fruitful in the matter of new laws, extending the scope of municipal ownership.

CARL HENRY MOTE.[1]

Indianapolis.

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Public Utilities.—Eight states created state commissions for the control of public utilities during the session of 1913. These states are: Indiana, Illinois, Colorado, Missouri, Montana, Idaho, Pennsylvania and West Virginia. Massachusetts conferred the duties of the highway commission relating to telegraphs and telephones and the duties of the railroad commission upon a public service commission. Ohio redrafted the public utility commission law giving added powers especially relating to valuation and stock and bond issues, and New Hampshire amended her law by giving the commission power over accounting including depreciation. In each case the commission is made appointive by the governor.

These laws uniformly require that public utilities shall give just and reasonable service at a just and reasonable price and in most states give the commissions ample power for investigation and enforcement. The municipal utilities placed under control in the different states are principally heat, light, water and power companies, street railways, telephone and telegraph companies. In most of the states the commissions control also railroads and other common carriers and similar services.

Discrimination is prohibited in service and rates; free service to any but certain excepted classes is prohibited and in all but West Virginia issues of stocks and bonds is placed under the regulation of the commission; uniform accounts are provided for, either in a mandatory or optional way, and valuation of the property used and useful for the convenience of the public is authorized in nearly all of the states. In Indiana and Ohio such valuation is required. In nearly every state municipally owned utilities are subject to the same regulation as others. The laws make no exceptions for home rule. Although a strong effort was made in Illinois to except Chicago from the law, it failed. The state commission is therefore supreme in most things over the municipalities but much power is left to the municipalities to regulate and control. The cities grant franchises and regulate by contract or otherwise the service and condition of occupying of the streets. In Indiana the indeterminate permit is provided for after the manner of the Wisconsin law. There are no distinct departures in the laws from those heretofore enacted in nearly a score of states but there is a tendency to give real powers to the commissions. With the exception of the law passed in West Virginia and the half way measure of Massachusetts, the laws of the year represent nearly all of the best which has been proven good by experience in other states.

California. The new public utility district act[2] is worthy of very careful consideration. Such districts may include municipalities only or both incorporated and unincorporated territory, whether such municipalities or such territory are in the same, or in different counties, but no municipal corporation shall be divided in the formation of such a district. Such a district may, "acquire construct, own, operate" control, or use within or without, or partly within or partly without "the district, works for supplying the inhabitants of said district with" light, water, power, heat, transportation, telephone service or other "means of communication, or for the disposition of garbage, sewage," storm water or refuse matter, or parks, and do all things necessary or "convenient to the full exercise of the powers" granted in the act. Constitutional amendments proposed are vitally related to this general subject matter of public utilities. The constitution as it was amended October 10, 1911, retains great powers in municipalities over public utilities which may be surrendered by such municipalities to the railroad commission, and may again be resumed by such municipalities. It is now proposed, that the powers and rights of such municipalities would, in case of such amendment, be as follows:

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[1] Formerly Editor, *Indianapolis Sun.*

[2] Chap. 261, L., 1913.

> Provided, however, that this section shall not affect such powers of control over public utilities as relate to the making and enforcement of local, police, sanitary and other regulations, other than the fixing of rates, vested in any city and county or incorporated city or town as, at an election to be held pursuant to law, a majority of the qualified electors of such city and county, or incorporated city or town, voting thereon, shall vote to retain, and until such election such powers shall continue unimpaired, but if the vote so taken shall not favor the continuation of such powers they shall thereafter vest in the railroad commission as provided by law; and provided, further that where any such city and county or incorporated city or town shall have elected to continue any of its powers to make and enforce such local police, sanitary and other regulations, other than the fixing of rates, it may, by vote of a majority of its qualified electors voting thereon, thereafter surrender such powers to the railroad commission in the manner prescribed by the legislature, and provided, further, that this section shall not affect the right of any city and county or incorporated city or town to grant franchises for public utilities upon the terms and conditions and in the manner prescribed by law.

The two significant changes consist in the phrase, "other than the fixing of rates," and the omission of the provision for revesting power in municipalities.

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Taxation.[1]—The subject of taxation of interest to municipalities did not receive much attention at the recent sessions:

Constitutional amendments have been adopted this year by the legislatures of Kansas and Oregon, to be voted on by the people in those states in November, 1914, and intended to permit the classification of property for taxation at different rates. Amendments substantially similar have been rejected twice (1910 and 1912) in Oregon by a small majority. Both states now have constitutional provisions which impose the rigid general property tax, subjecting all property, real and personal, to one rule of assessment and taxation. Iowa passed an amendment for the first time providing for the separation of sources of revenue.

New Jersey enacted one important tax law, providing for tax maps throughout the state. This was one of the recommendations of the commission to investigate tax assessments. Cities, boroughs, villages and towns not having maps, or where existing maps are inadequate, must provide their assessors with an adequate map within two years, showing the boundaries of each property, together with lot and block designations, in accordance with rules to be established by the state board of equalization of taxes, which is the central supervising body.

Maps in townships are to be prepared without the expense of an actual survey of each property. New Jersey is fortunate in having a complete geological survey, on a scale of one mile to the inch (similar to the United States survey). The law provides that outline maps for the various townships shall be prepared by the state board, showing, by enlargement from the geological maps, the highways, railroads, etc. The county tax boards are to arrange with the local assessor, or some other competent person in the county, to draw on the map the boundary lines of various properties, by consulting deeds or by observation, without a survey; the map is then to be open for public inspection in the taxing district on a day stated and to be corrected in accordance with criticisms of property owners. This plan is much cheaper than an actual survey and sufficiently accurate for the country districts. It was first suggested by E. L. Heydecker of New York, at the second tax conference in that state last year.

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[1] Notes by A. C. Pleydell and Charles W. Reeder.

The law provides also that a township may, by vote of the people, order a surveyed map, or that the state board may cause a survey to be made of such part of a township as cannot be properly mapped by the above plan, as, for example, where there is a suburban lot development. This work in the townships is to be completed within five years.

Ohio had considerable legislation on taxation. One law[1] makes it the duty of ths state tax commission to direct and supervise the assessment of all real and personal property in the state for taxation. By its terms, all elective assessors are abolished, together with all boards of review. For the purposes of this act, each county in the state is made an assessment district. If less than 65,000 in population, one deputy state tax commissioner will be appointed for it; in other counties, two. These officials are appointed by the governor. They in turn appoint deputies, assistants, experts, clerks and other employees.

Under the direction of the state tax commission these officials list and value for taxation all real and personal property subject to taxation in the assessment district. The results of the work are delivered to the county auditor.

In each assessment district there is appointed by the tax commission a board of three persons who constitute a "district board of complaints." The board hears all complaints relating to the assessment of both real and personal property. It may raise or lower an assessment, or order a re-assessment. The results of these boards' work are given to the district assessors. Provision is also made for appeals to the state tax commission.

The Smith One-Per Cent Tax Law[2] had a limitation that the amount of money raised by taxation for 1911 and each succeeding year should be based upon the amount raised in the year 1910. This limitation was removed. The law[3] now provides that the aggregate amount of taxes levied in any district shall not in any one year exceed ten mills on each dollar of tax valuation. Levies for sinking fund and interest are made in addition to the above. Another law[4] fixed a limitation on the maximum levy, including sinking fund and interest, at fifteen mills.

Three changes were made by the legislature in allowing excesses over the ten and fifteen mill limits. Two of these were due to the great damage done by the floods in Ohio during March and April, 1913. One law[5] authorizes the repair or replacement of public property damaged or lost by the issue of bonds, the tax levy to pay the interest and principal of which shall not be subject to any limitations. The second law[6] allows the replacement of school houses damaged by the floods from funds secured from bonds, sold above the limit allowed by law.

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[1] 103 O. L., 786-804.

[2] NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. 1, p. 282-283.

[3] 103 O. L., 552.

[4] 103 O. L., 57.

[5] 103 O. L., 760-763; also 141-147.

[6] 103 O. L., 527.

The third[1] change in the tax law is in connection with the "good roads movement." The legislature authorized the levying of an annual tax of one-half of one mill on all the taxable property within the state to be used in highway improvement. This latter levy is in addition to all other levies made for any purposes whatsoever.

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City and County.—*California.* The statutes of 1913 in California contain many act tending to bring the functions of the city and county together. There has long been a fairly well established line of demarcation between counties and cities in California, as expressed by Justice Harrison of the supreme court of California, in *County of San Mateo vs. Coburn*[2] as follows:

> A county is a governmental agency or political subdivision of the state, organized for purposes of exercising some functions of the state government, whereas a municipal corporation is an incorporation of the inhabitants of a specified region for purposes of local government.

The fight for home rule for cities being very largely won, the pressure for a rapprochement between the activities of the county and of the city has been continually growing stronger, and, perhaps, the first substantial step, in accordance with the facts, and away from such logical distinction between the county and the city, was the amendment of the constitution by the addition of a new section known as 7½ article 11, adopted October 10, 1911, permitting a county to frame a charter for its own government. This may have been foreshadowed by section 7 of that article, adopted November 6, 1894, permitting city and county governments to be merged and consolidated into one municipal government.

Under this new provision for county charters there has come into existence the Los Angeles county charter,[3] and the charter of the county of San Bernardino.[4]

The point thus reached is certainly a far cry from "a system of county government which shall be uniform throughout the state" which was and still is the provision in section 4 of article 11, and originally a part of the present constitution of 1879.

It may be that the proposed amendment of section 13 of article 11 (by assembly constitutional amendment no. 47),[5] so that the legislature shall unquestionably "have power to provide for the supervision, regulation and conduct, in such manner as it may determine, of the affairs of irrigation districts, reclamation districts or drainage districts, organized or existing under any law of this state" may infringe somewhat upon municipal powers. Constitutional amendments passed seek to bring the city and county government together.

Chapter 92 provides

> For the assumption and discharge by county officers of certain of the municipal functions of the cities and towns within the county, whenever, in the case of cities and towns incorporated under general laws the discharge by county officers of such municipal functions is authorized by general law, or whenever, in the case of cities and towns organized under section eight of this article, the discharge by county officers of such municipal functions is authorized by provisions of the charters, or by amendments thereto, of such cities or towns.

Another constitutional amendment provides that

> the legislature may, by general laws, provide for the performance by county officers of certain of the municipal functions of cities and towns so incorporated (under the municipal incorporation act) whenever a majority of the electors of any such city or town voting at a general or special election shall so determine.

The converse of this is also provided as an amendment to section 7½ of article

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[1] 103 O. L., 863: also 155-158.

[2] 130 Cal. 631, 636.

[3] Chap. 5, Laws 1913.

[4] Chap. 33, Laws 1913.

[5] Chap. 91, Laws 1913.

11 to enable the assignment of the performance within municipalities of any of the duties of county officers to city officials. Further amendments seek to clarify the application to the new city county organization of the provisions of section eight of article II which provides for incorporation of cities and towns.[1]

R. S. Gray.

San Francisco, Cal.

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Budget Legislation.—*Wisconsin.* The legislature, prohibited by state constitution from enacting special municipal legislation, has this session revised budget procedure for Wisconsin cities of the first class. Heretofore budget making, based on meager information, lump sum appropriations once adopted not revisable, budget schedules largely permissive appropriations requiring further common council authorizations to expend, a financial hiatus during the first month of every year due to the fiscal year commencing January 1 and budget adoption on January 31, confusion as to time effective of salary revision because of conflicting charter provisions reading current year, ensuing year or next ensuing year, and a long tortuous journey through committees depending upon gossip information rather than on written facts, has been budget making on anything but a scientific efficient basis—a guess proposition and a poor guess at that.

The new budget law provides (a) that heads of departments shall file estimates of proposed expenditures of every kind and nature, in detail, and the reasons therefor, with comptroller not later than October 1, (b) a board of estimate consisting of mayor, comptroller, treasurer, city attorney, president of common council, commissioner of public works and the five members of the finance committee of the common council, (c) that from departmental estimates the board shall adopt a tentative budget by December 15 all meetings to be public, and after at least one public hearing, (d) that the common council, after revision, and at least one public hearing, shall adopt budget by December 31, (e) that board of estimate shall meet at call of mayor and may revise budget items upon request, supported by data, of department heads, (f) that budget items shall be appropriations. All commissions and boards, over which common council has limited jurisdiction are also brought under this act. The legislature has also passed amendments in conjunction with the budget act which vests the comptroller with greater and more positive authority as to prescribing accounting methods, forms of payrolls, etc., in departments. The lot and block system for writing tax rolls and tax bills, similar to the system in New York City, has been authorized.

While there has been no state budget legislation, great advance has been made as to making up the general appropriation bill, all items having been set forth on a scientific budget plan.

Ralph Bowman.[2]

Ohio. The make-up of the budget commission[3] was also changed.[4] It now consists of three members: The county auditor, the mayor of the largest municipality, and the city solicitor of the largest municipality, provided the amount of taxable property in the cities and villages exceeds that outside, otherwise, the president of the school board of the school district containing the largest municipality. This board determines the tax levy for each county in the state, after receiving all the requests from all the districts and the state.

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Legislative Reference.—That legislative reference is still progressing is evinced not only by the new departments each year sees created, but also by the radical changes introduced into the administration of already established bureaus. Three new departments will date from 1913, New Hampshire, California and Illinois, In New Hampshire, the work begins modestly as a function of the state library, with $500 of the library fund diverted for the purpose but with no provision for a special librarian. In both California and Illinois the issue seemed to be, not the importance of the work which was generally admitted, but in what way it was to be established. Several bills embodying various schemes for legislative reference were introduced into the assemblies of each state, resulting, in California, in a legislative counsel bureau—the governor and two members from each legislative house—to be administered by a salaried chief of the bureau, and, in Illinois, in a quite similar plan, a joint legislative commission,—the governor and the chairmen of the appropriations and judiciary committees of both houses with a secretary to carry on the work. Each law includes bill drafting and, in Illinois, the bureau is required to furnish each general assembly with a budget of state expenses.

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[1] Laws 1913, chap. 90.

[2] Director Milwaukee Bureau of Municipal Research.

[3] National Municipal Review, vol. i, p. 282.

[4] 103 O. L., 552.

In Vermont, Indiana and Ohio, the legislative reference departments already existing as branches of the work of the state libraries, were placed on an independent basis by 1913 enactments which removed them from the state libraries, and made them separate bureaus, granting them more ample appropriations. In Vermont, the chief of the bureau is appointed by the governor; in Indiana, a separate board of the governor, state librarian, presidents of the two state universities and one other member controls the bureau; and in Ohio the work is directly under the supervision of the state board of library commissioners. The new Vermont law adds to the bureau two revisers of statutes, also appointed by the governor, to assist in bill drafting and endorse or reject as to phraseology and consistency with existing statutes, all bills introduced.

The following item in the Nebraska appropriation bill, is of interest as an entirely new departure in legislative reference work—designed, perhaps, to limit the amount of bill drafting falling upon the bureau to the more important bills:

> Neither the director nor the assistant director, nor any employee of the legislative reference bureau shall draft or prepare any bill for introduction into the legislature for any member of the legislature or for any other person, except on the payment of five dollars ($5.00) for each and every bill that may be so prepared by any employee of said bureau, which sum shall be paid into the State Treasury for the benefit of the general fund.

Without legislative enactment or appropriation, the state universities of Colorado and Washington have made a beginning in this line of work and maintained bureaus at their respective state capitols during the legislative sessions.

ETHEL CLELAND.[1]

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Social Welfare Board.—*Missouri.*[2] A social welfare board was created for counties having a city of the first class in Missouri to take the place of the charity boards, and to consist of the mayor, president of the county court, three members appointed by the county court and three by the mayor and council. The law declares that the board shall be non-political and non-sectarian. The duties of the board are those incident to the betterment of social and physical causes of dependency, the relief and care of the indigent and the care of sick dependents excepting insane and those having transmissible diseases and those admitted to the poor house. Besides the duties of relief, the board is made a center of inter-communication for the charitable organizations with the end of eliminating overlapping relief. A confidential registration bureau is to be maintained. The police commission and health authorities are required to aid the board whenever requested in matters coming within their respective functions. The law requires that the board shall make concentrated attack on social causes of hardship such as insanitary housing, child labor, pawn shops, and loan sharks.

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[1] Indiana Legislative reference bureau.

[2] Laws 1913, p. 134.

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Motion Pictures.—*Ohio.* The restrictions on theaters and motion picture show rooms were lessened by the recent legislature.[1] The minimum size of room was changed from 25 feet wide, measuring the clear between the walls, to 18 feet; and the height of the room was changed from 15 feet to 13 feet. A board of three members is to be appointed for the state by the industrial commission to censor motion picture films.[2] The films are to be submitted to the board before they are delivered to the exhibitor. If passed they are to be stamped, and numbered consecutively. Before the films are shown, the words "Approved by the Ohio Board of Censors" and the number must be projected upon the screen. The board may work in connection with other censor boards as a censor congress and the action of the congress will be accepted. Ninety days after the law goes into effect, no films can be shown in Ohio unless passed by the board. The penalty for violating the act is a fine of $25 to $300 or an imprisonment of 30 days to one year or both.[3]

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Advertising—Municipal.—A Washington law[4] authorizes cities of from 10,000 to 18,000 inhabitants to create by ordinance a publicity fund, to be used exclusively for exploiting and advertising the general advantages and opportunities of such city and vicinity, and to levy a tax not exceeding 2.5 mills on the dollar of the assessed valuation of the taxable property of such city. This publicity fund is to be managed by a board of three members, who are nominated by an incorporated commercial organization of such city having not less than two hundred dues paying members, then appointed by the mayor and confirmed by the council. The members of this board serve without remuneration and must be actual residents, voters and property owners in such city and must give bond to the city in the sum of $1000. No part of this fund shall ever be paid to any newspaper, magazine, or periodical for advertising or for any services whatsoever, nor for making exhibits at any fair, expositions or the like.

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Residence Districts.—A Minnesota[5] law authorizes cities of 50,000 or more to designate residence districts in which the erection of anything but residences may be prohibited. Industrial districts may also be designated where certain classes of industries may be carried on. In the city of Boston[6] no building used as a garage shall hereafter be erected or enlarged without the approval of the board of street commissioners after a notice and public hearing upon an application filed with the board. The board shall hear all parties interested and after giving due consideration to the interests of all owners of record notified, the general character of the neighborhood and the public convenience and determine whether the permission should be granted.

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[1] 103 O. L., 114.

[2] 103 O. L., 399.

[3] Notes by C. W. Reeder, Ohio State University Library.

[4] Laws 1913, chap. 57.

[5] Laws 1913, chap. 420.

[6] Laws 1913, chap. 577.

II. JUDICIAL DECISIONS

Brick Kilns in Residence Districts.—Los Angeles has an ordinance prohibiting the maintenance or operation of brick kilns in certain described residence districts. A violation of any of the provisions of the ordinance is made a misdemeanor. One Hadachek, who owned land and operated a brick kiln within the district described before the territory concerned was annexed to the city, was arrested for continuing to operate it after the ordinance went into effect. In upholding the validity of the ordinance in habeas corpus proceedings brought by him, *ex parte Hadachek*,[1] the supreme court of California very positively affirms the power of legislative regulation of possible nuisances. It holds that this trade conducted in a residence district is one concerning the innocuous character of which reasonable minds may differ. That absolute prohibition in such districts is accordingly a matter for legislative determination. That the courts will not substitute their judgment upon the issue for that of the legislative body. It is further held that the business having antedated the residences made no difference. That the residents are not estopped from objecting to a nuisance by the fact that they moved into the vicinity of it. That the power to regulate a given business is not limited by the fact that the value of investments made in the business prior to legislative action will be greatly diminished. The point made by the petitioner that the purpose of the ordinance was to suppress his and one other business was held immaterial, the suppression being otherwise proper, and there being no showing of an intent to injure or to discriminate against him as an individual.

This decision is one of a series in which the rights of a city to regulate conditions of living within its boundaries is affirmed completely.

Uniformity in Water Rates.—The distinction between the public and private nature of various activities of a city is discussed by the supreme court of Alabama in *City of Montgomery vs. Greene et al.*[2] The city water mains were extended out-side the limits of the municipality, and an additional charge made for water from such extensions. The court held that all persons are entitled to have the same service at the same rates. That the fact that the city had elected to extend the mains beyond the limits did not entitle it to charge more for water so supplied. That when a city goes into the business of supplying water to its inhabitants or others, it does it in the capacity of a private corporation, and not in the exercise of its power of local sovereignty, and is in this respect on precisely the same footing as a private corporation.

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Rights in the Water Fronts.—The supreme court of Oregon in *Pacific Milling and Elevator Company vs. City of Portland*[3] handed down a decision of vast importance to cities trying to rescue something from the past prodigality of the state legislature. The property involved ran high into millions, and consisted of that portion of the bed of the Willamette river between high water mark and the line of navigation. The contention of the city was that this property was vested in the state for the use of the public, and that gifts by the legislature purporting to convey it to the owners of the riparian lands were void, and conferred no rights in respect to it. That the state being in the position of a trustee for the people could not divest itself of the property to private parties in violation of the trust. Various objections were also raised to the form of the divesting. The court, however, was impressed with the fact that taxes had been paid on the lands in question for a number of years. That investments in large amounts had been made on the strength of the titles in dispute, and that stability of land titles is of much importance. It therefore confirmed the ancient and wholesale legislative grants placing in private hands almost the whole of the river banks within the city limits thus infinitely increasing the difficulty of municipal use and municipal development of the waterfront.

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[1] P. R. 132–584.

[2] 60 S. R. 900.

[3] 133 Pac. R. 72.

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Things a City Ought to Know.—St. Louis permitted a sink hole to exist close to an unguarded sidewalk. A heavy storm filled the hole with water and a child was drowned in it. The supreme court of Missouri in *Benton et ux vs. City of St. Louis*[1] decided that the city must be deemed to have known that the hole was filled with water after the storm, although it did not know that any particular storm had filled it. The court holds that a city is to be presumed to have rather full and complete knowledge as to conditions within its boundaries, though it may not be informed as to how those conditions came to exist.

◆

Commission Government and the Constitution.—Opponents of the commission form of government usually depend on the constitution as a last defense In *State ex rel. Duniway et al vs. City of Portland et al*[2] the futility of this defense was again exemplified. Oregon cities, by constitutional amendments, enjoy a very large measure of home rule. The case came up on an application for a writ of mandamus to compel the city auditor to place on the ballot the names of the nominees selected at the primary held on the day the new charter was adopted, and which nominations were avoided by the fact of the proposed charters being adopted. Among the objections urged was that the charter was void for the reason that it prohibited political designations on the ballot, that it consisted of a mass of amendments and did not give the voter an opportunity to vote on each separately, that the preferential system of voting is a violation of the constitution, and that less than a majority of the registered voters having expressed themselves the charter could not be considered to have been adopted.

The court adopted as a test the power of the legislature to have enacted the charter before the home rule provisions became effective, and held that such an enactment having been within the power of the legislature, it is within the power of the voters of the city now. That the right to a political designation on the ballot is no more essential than that to a religious or fraternal one, and that voters who did not take enough interest to vote are to be considered "ciphers, and put in a column by themselves."

◆

Competition in Water Supply.—In view of the alleged "holdup" tactics of private water companies in various cities the decision by the circuit court of appeals in *Town of Glenwood Springs vs. Glenwood Light & Water Company*[3] is of considerable interest. The water company in this case held a franchise for a term of years to supply the town and its inhabitants with water, and to lay pipes, etc., and the exclusive right to furnish the town with water for public purposes, such as flushing of sewers, fire fighting, and street sprinkling. The company had executed the contract and was operating under it when the town undertook to establish a competing municipal system. It was held that the city was entitled, so far as the contract was concerned, to construct and operate waterworks, and to compete with the company in supplying its inhabitants with water for domestic and other purposes, so long as it did not infringe on the exclusive grant made to the company and that an injunction restraining it from so doing could not be sustained.

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[1] 154 S. W. R. 473.

[2] 133 Pac. R. 62.

[3] 202 F. R. 678.

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Obligations under a Franchise.—The right of a city to revoke a franchise for incomplete compliance with its terms was considered by the United States Supreme Court in *Grand Trunk Western Railway Company vs. City of South Bend et al.*[1] The company held a franchise to lay double tracks on one of the city streets, but had laid only a single one over the greater part of it. The city officials revoked the franchise as to that part of the street having only the single track. The company was able to show however that, relying on the grant, it had bought property from abutting property owners and was prepared to lay the additional track as soon as its traffic demanded it. That a part of the double track had already been laid. On this state of facts, the court held the revocation of the franchise a violation of contract, and unconstitutional on that ground. The chief difference between the city and the company related to the time to be allowed for full performance. The court apparently possessed a greater stock of patience than the city authorities were able to command.

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Property Owners Defended.—The collection of water rates in such a way as not to use too large a proportion of the income in the effort, and at the same time to get the money is an administrative problem, of importance in all cities with a municipal water supply. Nashville undertook to make all unmetered rates a charge against the property owner instead of the user. The supreme court of Tennessee, however, in *Farmer vs. Mayor and City Council of Nashville*[2] held the ordinance to be unjust and unreasonable and an arbitrary distinction as not bearing on all citizens equally, and therefore void. That all necessary protection to the city is furnished by the terms of another ordinance which requires unmetered water rates to be paid in advance.

C. D. Mahaffie.[3]

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[1] 33 S. C. R. 303

[2] 150 S. W. R. 189.

[3] Of the Portland, Ore., bar.

DEPARTMENT OF REPORTS AND DOCUMENTS

I. CRITICAL AND INTERPRETATIVE

EDITED BY JOHN A. FAIRLIE

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The City Milk Trade.[1]—Most people think that the milk question is new in America, that it appeared not over twenty years ago, but really it began to make itself felt in the big cities at an earlier period. Thus, in 1859 the office of milk inspector was established in Boston; in 1870 the board of health of Providence investigated the milk supply of that city; and in 1871 the board of health of Washington looked into that of the federal city. But in a sense the public is right, for the regular collection and analysis of milk samples did not become common in American cities until the period from 1885 to 1890. It seems probable that at about this time the family cow disappeared and dairymen found it necessary to locate so far from their trade that they found it difficult to deliver milk in good condition and had lost personal contact with their customers. At all events the efforts of those who were trying to keep milk supplies pure were almost wholly in the direction of attempting to stop watering, skimming, and other forms of sophistication. Such work was certainly necessary, if the records are to believed, for this kind of cheating was common, but it was an attempt on the consumer's pocketbook rather than on his life. This was forcefully brought to public attention by Sedgwick and Batchelder in 1890, by the publication of the results of their bacteriological study of the milk supply of Boston. The large number of germs found amazed people and prepared the way for new methods of controlling milk supplies.

A few years later the town of Montclair, N. J., suffered from a severe epidemic of milk-borne typhoid fever, and in consequence established a board of health on thoroughly modern lines that ever since has stood as an example of what a board of health should be. It chanced that the health officers appointed by this board were pupils of Sedgwick; so, for this reason, and, perhaps, because a milk epidemic begot the board, it has given much attention to the milk question. In bettering local conditions less emphasis was laid on chemical tests than on dairy inspection and on bacterial counts, with the result that milk was improved by correcting conditions that prevailed on the farms whence it came. The work was educational both to the dairymen and the public, for inspectors spent much time at the farms and the annual reports of the board, both in pictures and words, told exactly the conditions at the several farms that supplied the town. This sort of story is familiar now, but then it was new, consequently the reports had a wide circulation, so that Montclair methods were widely copied and, in fact, in forms adapted to the needs of other communities, came into general use.

That Dr. Henry L. Coit, when he originated certified milk in 1893, made a contract for its production with a Montclair dairyman, Stephen Francisco, was of great help to the board, for there was already established in the field a sanitary dairy that was successful enough to impel other dairies to copy its methods and that for some time had been educating people to the value of clean milk. The idea of having milk certified by a medical milk commission spread. Certified dairies are established in many places in the

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[1] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. i, pp. 71 and 700; vol. ii, pp. 313 and 509.

United States, and everywhere exert a similar influence to that of Montclair.

At about the same time that the work of Sedgwick and Batchelder appeared, the agricultural experiment stations began to evince interest in dairy bacteriology and in the production of clean milk. Conn of Connecticut and Russell of Wisconsin were the first workers in the field, and Conn's investigation of the bacterial content of the milk supply of Middletown, Conn. was one of the earliest studies of the kind. The dairy bacteriologists of the experiment stations soon focused their attention on cream, butter and cheese, so that until recently the city milk trade has been more influenced by medically trained bacteriologists than by bacteriologists of agricultural experience, but the latter type of man is again becoming interested in city milk supplies and may be expected to be active in the next few years.

Among those having a more general interest, philanthropists stand out prominently. Nathan Strauss, for example, has provided funds for the distribution of pasteurized milk to poor mothers, thereby doing an act of charity and making way for pasteurizing milk by endorsing its use and acquainting the public with it. He has a shoal of imitators, who have made it possible in many different cities to maintain milk stations where good milk can be procured or sick babies at reasonable rates. Other moneyed men, feeling that they could best help by improving methods of production and distribution, have provided funds for elaborate studies in these fields.

With so many interested in the milk problem it was natural that it should be discussed in societies of various sorts. Thus, the American Public Health Association, the International Milk Inspectors Association, the Dairy Instructors Association, the American Association of Medical Milk Commissions, the New New York Milk Committee, and a host of similar organizations have been active in formulating methods of laboratory procedure, or in devising score cards, or in considering methods to protect the dairy business, or in proposing legislation.

Many other forces have been at work, but these seem to be the principal ones; each is powerful, and each has reacted differently on dairying. What each has done, and what may be expected of each may be profitably considered.

The societies have been the center where the differences of experts and questions of policy have been thrashed out, where lines of attack were laid out, and determination to support or oppose proposed legislation was reached. It is not likely that these functions will change or that the influence exerted by the associations will be greatly different from what it now is.

The milk charities too will probably continue as they are; though there will very likely be more of them. They will teach mothers the value of milk and how to use it. The scientific investigations that have been made possible by private gifts may be expected to continue to be of great importance.

Medical milk commissions and the dairies they have certified have been helpful in many ways. In the first place, they have furnished milk that was known to be clean and as safe as raw milk can possibly be. This has been a boon to infants and invalids. They have demonstrated that no amount of care can protect milk absolutely from infection; that raw milk always may be unsafe. They have demonstrated good methods, but they have shown that it is possible to apply such expensive machinery to the dairy business and to impose on it such restrictions that profits reach a vanishing point and thereby have warned the commercial man that so far and no farther can he go. The milk produced by these dairies is a valuable asset to a community but is one that by reason of its cost is available only to the rich, therefore it can solve the milk question for only a few.

Physicians perhaps more than others appreciate the value of pure milk, but their interest has, perhaps, been stimulated by certified dairies. The doctors have contributed valuable papers both from the school and in the medical press. Tuberculosis, pasteurization, and the reduction of infant mortality called forth their best efforts. They have helped locate the cause of epidemics, and have appeared at meetings where questions of milk supply were under discussion. The certified dairies will multiply, but it is hardly to be expected that they will serve a much larger proportion of the communities wherein they operate than they now do. Their influence will be much the same, but the dairy world has absorbed their doctrine and it is unlikely they will add much thereto.

The agitation of the milk question by boards of health has been conducted from the city man's view point; that is, its object has been to secure a low infantile morbidity rate and to protect the populace from those diseases that are spread in milk. A large degree of success has been attained. Incidentally it has been discovered that the milk question has many aspects, that the amelioration of conditions involved is most intricate and touches big investments of capital. The interests expressly affected by the activity of boards of health are those of the dairyman and of the contractor, middleman or distributor, as he has been variously called, but indirectly other large interests such as the railroads are concerned. The position of the boards of health has been difficult, for they have been charged by the farmers with ignorance of farm conditions, by the railroads with imposing impossible orders as regards icing and other matters, and by contractors with the promulgation of regulations that were unnecessary, arduous and expensive. In other words, at times they have had to face the opposition, open and covert, of large financial interests; it is also true that, speaking by and large, these interests want good conditions in the dairy business, and by their cheerful support of regulations of the boards have secured their quick application with a minimum of friction. In reaching the standards proposed by boards of health both dairymen and contractors have had to introduce costly machinery, improve their plants, and adopt more expensive methods of handling milk. Moreover, the big contractors in order to conduct their business properly have had either to establish systems of inspection and laboratories of their own, or else to have this work done in the large commercial laboratories that are to be found in the great cities. The latter custom has resulted in creating a class of experts who are vigilant to protect their clients' interests and to introduce improvements that will cut down expenses both in the city and the country. It follows that both dairymen and contractors have been drawn into the discussion of dairy problems, and that through granges, milk dealers associations, and other organizations of various sorts they have exerted an influence on the price of milk and on the laws enacted to govern its production and distribution. Boards of health then have had great influence, direct and indirect, which they will probably continue to exert, for they are working in the consumers' interest and have the support of a powerful public opinion; but it is likely that in the future the experimental and inspection work will be checked up more closely than heretofore by other investigators.

The agricultural experiment stations naturally see the farmer's position and, perhaps, only less clearly the contractors. For years station men have been investigating and collecting data on dairying. They know, as no one else does, that the modern dairy farmer has large sums of money invested in his business and that he must be a highly trained man in order to succeed. They appreciate fully that the profits in dairying are not easy and that only careful management can reap them. Consequently, the stations have labored zealously to get dairymen to adopt economical rations, to weed out non-productive or robber cows, to pay attention to breeding, and to be biologically clean, so that the products may be wholesome and of good flavor, thereby insuring the best market prices. They know that dairying must pay a reasonable profit to be sound, hence the stations have tried to make the dairymen efficient and have protested when regulations have been proposed that sounded good and entailed expense, but yielded no adequate benefit. The work of the stations will grow in importance, for at present it is the hope of improving farm conditions that holds out the brightest prospect for a solution of the milk question.

Horatio N. Parker.
University of Illinois.

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State Tax Commissions.—At last we are developing a tax literature strictly of our own. "Made in Germany" is a term no longer applicable to theoretical and practical works on public finance for the use of the American student. We can thank our tax commissions and National Tax Association for this happy deliverance.

In looking over the reports of our permanent tax commissions and tax commissioners, the reviewer is impressed with the six "Firsts" which are now to be added to the list of reports. The six newcomers are Arizona, Colorado, Louisiana, North Dakota, Ohio and Wyoming. The old ones are, of course, Alabama, Connecticut, Indiana, Kansas, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, Oregon, Texas, Vermont, Washington, West Virginia, Wisconsin—a total of twenty-three in all.

A gross defect, easily avoidable, found in several of these reports, is the lack of a table of contents or of an index. Indeed Alabama, Indiana, and Wyoming have neither index nor table of contents. Surely in this modern day of scientific report making, these flagrant defects are wholly inexcusable. Another weak point in several reports is the printing of a great mass of statistical matter without comment or explanation. The best reports subordinate the statistical data to a small part of the report, and preferably, to an appendix.

Certain familiar recommendations, so venerable as to be hoary-bearded, are now reiterated in the newer reports. The three chief ones are these: (1) The failure of the personal property tax makes it necessary to end or mend this barbarity without delay; (2) A centralized assessment must be had, if any improvement is to be realized. A state with the county-assessor system even advises that this system be supplanted by a direct state assessment; (3) Constitutional limitations preserve defects in our present system and preclude benefits of other systems.

Among the newer things securing attention and some emphasis, are uniform municipal accounting, tax maps for cities, and a minimum tax on intangibles. These are all sound recommendations. Great interest is being shown in the Wisconsin income tax, although most commissions suspend judgment on it. And for the first time the single tax is receiving serious and impartial treatment.

In my judgment, two reports stand out above the rest in merit, especially for the student in municipal finance. These two are the Wisconsin and the Minnesota report. These deserve specific discussion.

An excellent analysis of the income tax is given in the Wisconsin report. This tax is shown to be urban rather than rural in its incidence. It is clearly a "city tax" and falls most heavily on the largest cities. It is a revenue-producer; is not inquisitorial in operation; and is a very good substitute for the personal property tax.

Chapter six of the Wisconsin report deals with uniform municipal accounting. The act creating the permanent tax commission in 1905 provided that the commission should investigate accounting and financial methods of the towns, cities, villages, counties, and other public offices, and should formulate and prescribe a uniform system of accounting. This was not done. In 1909 a resolution was passed directing the commission to investigate the question of public expenditures. A volume on state finance was accordingly published. Chapter 523, laws of 1911, required more definitely the formulation of a system of municipal accounting. Such a system is to be installed "at the request of any town, village, city, or county." The system is to be as uniform as practicable. Under this statute the commission has completed and installed a system of public accounting in three counties, four cities and villages, and nine towns, and has audited accounts in three of these cities. Applications are now pending for the installation of a system of accounting in ten additional municipalties, two of which have also requested an audit.

This work is done at the expense of the municipality.

The installation of systems of accounts for counties, towns, and villages and for small cities is comparatively simple. The financial affairs (but not the records) of these districts are usually in excellent condition. "On the other hand," says the report, "the financial affairs and methods of the larger cities have been exceedingly haphazard as a general rule. In many cases the plainest provisions of the statute have been violated with respect to sinking funds and other important financial matters."

The pay-as-you-go spirit is exceedingly pronouced in the country districts. The precise reverse is the common practice in the cities. "Instead of showing a disposition to pay for improvements out of revenues, the common disposition appears to be to borrow for all improvements and frequently to borrow for current expenditures. Thus, while generally speaking, our towns and counties are acquiring fixed property in values amounting to large sums with comparatively little debt to offset them, our cities seem disposed to incur large debts, offsetting to a very large extent, whatever capital assets the city may own."

"A prime requisite of any accounting system is that there shall be a proper audit of every receipt and of every expenditure by proper officials," says the commission, and yet this check is commonly wanting.

Bonded debt of municipalities is a potential menace. "This debt is growing rapidly and too often bonds are refunded instead of being retired at maturity."

The serial plan of paying bonds is now successfully applied in cases where the state school money is loaned to municipalities. This plan avoids the sinking fund pitfalls.

Chapter twelve of the Minnesota 1912 report (pages 165-180) is entitled "taxation of land values," and contains a remarkably clear and adequate discussion of the tax systems of western Canada. In Canada there are no constitutional restrictions on taxation, and hence tax systems in the various provinces and cities have been worked out to fit industrial conditions. It is the single tax which receives the fullest treatment in this chapter.

Winnipeg derives its public revenue from (1) real estate; (2) business; and (3) franchise taxes. (1) Land is assessed at full value, buildings at two-thirds. (2) The business tax takes the place of a personal property tax, and is levied on the supposed rental value of the buildings.

Saskatchewan cities derive their revenue from (1) real estate, (2) business, and (3) income taxes. Buildings are now taxed, but will not be taxed in a few years. Business taxes are levied at so much per square foot of floor space, the rates being classified (50 cents for sash and door factories, $8 for banks, etc.).

In Calgary, Alberta, land is assessed at full value, and buildings are to be entirely exempt by 1914.

Edmonton, the capital of Alberta, is the only city of importance in Canada that has adopted the single tax system in its entirety. A tax of land values alone is the only tax levied in that city. "The city has had a marvelous growth in the past few years," says the report, but whether or not such growth has been due in part to its tax system is a question of some dispute. That it is giving general satisfaction, is evidenced by the fact that nearly every resident of the city is an ardent single taxer.

In Vancouver, B. C., there is a provincial tax on personal property and incomes, but the city itself uses a land tax. It was the first Canadian city to exempt all buildings and improvements. The experiment has been successful.

For Minnesota the conclusions on the single tax, are as follows: To the average owner and occupant of a home or a farm the change would probably not mean much one way or the other. The elimination of personal property taxes however, would undoubtedly add somewhat to the tax burdens of speculators and owners of idle property.

James E. Boyle.
University of North Dakota.

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Housing and City Planning.[1]—*Fourth National Conference on City Planning.*[2] In spite of the fact that an increasing amount of attention was paid by the Conference to political, economic and social problems, anyone familiar with the activities of the European cities cannot but feel that the full significance of these phases of city planning is not realized by the experts in this country. It is true that engineering and landscape questions are of large importance, but they are, in the last analysis, matters of technical or aesthetic detail whose solution is not difficult.. Of greater significance are the questions of housing, of sanitation and hygiene, of transportation and terminal facilities, the legal difficulties and many others of a similar nature.

These matters were all discussed to a certain extent by the Conference, and yet the important question of excess condemnation did not receive the attention which it merited. This is especially remarkable, for a careful study of the city planning situation in this country will reveal that it is just this matter which promises to be a real obstacle in the way of future progress in city expansion.

Another question which the *Proceedings* suggest is that of state administrative control, which might be vested in the public service commissions. To be sure, city planning in the United States has not advanced sufficiently to require such control, but this is a factor which should be kept in mind with a view to averting the embarrassing situations in which the cities in other countries have been put.

Julius Goebel Jr.
University of Illinois.

Jersey City.[3] A report of "Suggested Plan of Procedure," prepared for the Jersey City plan commission differs markedly from many other city planning reports in presenting a comprehensive consideration of all phases of the city's problems. It has been prepared, not by one, but by several experts working constantly together—an engineer, an architect and a social worker. At the beginning of the report are discussed the methods and principles of the work of the experts; and at the close there is a summary of facts and recommendations, with an analysis of the relative importance of various items, from which is worked out an order of inquiry. Such a procedure program seems to offer distinct advantages as a first step in city planning work. It costs comparatively little, and should save a good deal of expense in working out the more detailed items.

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[1] See also review of "Recent City Planning Reports," by Charles Mulford Robinson, National Municipal Review, vol. ii, p. 160.

[2] See National Municipal Review, vol. i, p. 728.

[3] See National Municipal Review, vol. ii, p. 489.

Newark. In a similar report for Newark many of the detailed programs have been carried out, including studies of street traffic, the market problem and the use of the water front. The housing survey and report, by Dr. James Ford, of Harvard University, includes a comprehensive discussion of present conditions, with more specific consideration of proposed legislation, law enforcement, replanning old districts and planning new areas. The conclusions of this report are in favor of a permanent city plan commission for metropolitan Newark, and also for the organization of a permanent housing association or committee, which will create and represent the enlightened public opinion of the community. A similarly comprehensive recreation survey was in charge of Dr. Seymour Barnard of the Parks and Playgrounds Association of Brooklyn.

Housing Bibliography. The Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy has published a valuable bibliography of housing problem literature in central Chicago libraries. This was prepared in anticipation of the housing exhibition at the City Club during the month of March.[1] The lists of titles are classified under the following heads: Bibliographies, periodicals and collections, general works on housing and related subjects, city planning and garden cities, public regulation of housing and city planning, hygiene of towns and houses, architecture of tenements and small residences, land question as it affects housing and garden patches.

Street Improvements in Chicago. The committee on down town streets of the Chicago Association of Commerce has published *A Brief List of Suggestions to Public Improvement Associations*, by Louis A. Dumond, engineer of the committee. This calls attention to the opportunities of local improvement organizations, the importance of maintenance of street pavements, adequate street lighting, and the cleaning of streets, back yards and vacant lots; and discusses more fully some details of paving construction, with reference to different kinds of paving materials.

New York Freight Terminals. A brief report with maps, showing plans for freight terminal systems at South Brooklyn and West Side Lower Manhattan, was submitted by Calvin Tomkins, Commissioner of Docks of New York City, under date of September 12, 1912.

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Financial Reports.—The annual report of the New York City department of taxes and assessments, for the year ending March 31, 1912, besides the usual statistics and comparative statments for a number of years, includes two appendices—one on factors of value of new buildings and explanation of land value maps, and one on the taxation of personal property in the state of New York.

The fortieth annual report of the commissioners of accounts of New York City, for the year 1912, illustrates the value of these officers to the mayor in his administrative control of municipal officers, in the regulation of departmental accounts and methods and also in reports on sundry other matters. The efficiency staff, organized in 1911, has been conducting an investigation into conditions in the office of the president of the borough of Queens. In addition to the regular examination of receipts and disbursements, special examinations were made on a variety of subjects, including billboard advertising, public charities, municipal ferries, probation officers and theft of supplies.

Report No. 4 of the Baltimore, Md., bureau of state and municipal research presents a discussion of balance sheets for the city of Baltimore for 1911 and 1912, with exhibits showing the status of loan and income funds.

The report of Comptroller Taussig of St. Louis, for the year 1911-1912, includes, in addition to a summary report, detailed statements of the funded debt, the financial transactions for 1911-1912, estimates for 1912-1913, and a list of exhibits presenting comparative financial statements for a series of years.

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[1] See National Municipal Review, vol. ii, p. 497.

The report of the city auditor of Los Angeles, for the year 1911-1912, in addition to the data for that year, includes comparative tables of receipts and disbursements for five years and also a number of tables of miscellaneous information relating to Los Angeles and its municipal government.

A novel and commendable practice, inaugurated by the comptroller of Schenectady, N. Y., is the publication of brief financial reports during the course of the fiscal year. On July 1, 1912, a report was issued showing budget expenditures compared with allowances for the first six months of the fiscal year; and in October of the same year a report was published showing the activities of the department from January 1.

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Civil Service Reform.—The proceedings of the annual report of the National Civil Service Reform League, held at Milwaukee, Wis., December 5 and 6, 1912, includes the report of the joint committee of this League and the National Municipal League on the selection and retention of experts in municipal office, and a paper on methods of removal in the Chicago and Illinois services by Robert Catherwood and William B. Hale.

The seventeenth annual report of the board of city service commissioners of *Milwaukee, Wis.*, contains a copy of the city service act, the rules of the commission and the statistical report of the chief examiner and secretary. The report of the commission covers less than half a page; and the principal statements are that the department has been conducted on a business basis and that the board has worked harmoniously and with impartiality.

The tenth annual report of the civil service department of *Los Angeles, Cal.*, also presents statistical data, some correspondence and official opinions, charter provisions, civil service rules and a list of the positions in the city service.

The annual report of the board of of civil service commissioners of *New Orleans, La.*, notes that the new commission government law for that city does not disturb "the organic principles" of the civil service law. The report also includes financial and other statistics, the civil service law and rules, instructions to applicants and specimen examination papers.

All of the three foregoing municipal reports indicate a purely routine and mechanical performance of the work of such commissions; and there is nothing to indicate the effectiveness of the merit system or its results in the municipal service.

The efficiency division of the civil service commission of *Chicago* has published an outline report of its work from 1909 to 1912, under such headings as segregated appropriations and expenditures, standardized employment and uniform salaries, effective organization and efficiency control and departmental inquiries. With this is printed an analysis of employment and departmental organization charts for the city of Chicago, as of March 1913.

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Social Service.—*Municipal Charities in Philadelphia.* With the advent of Mayor Blankenburg's administration in Philadelphia, and with the approval of the mayor, a committee on municipal charities was formed, consisting of more than one hundred citizens for the purpose of endeavoring to secure a release for the city from contracts for two charitable institutions and to prepare a reasonably comprehensive plan for the development of the city's institutions. This committee was organized with an executive committee and eleven sub-committees on various classes of dependents. Under date of February 3, 1913, this committee has issued a report, with a series of subcommittee reports, which embody a survey of the city's existing system of charities, the various groups of dependents, and recommendations for a more comprehensive system of dealing with the respective classes of dependents. These recommendations include changes in the administrative organization of municipal charities and a revised classification of institutions and of beneficiaries of such institutions.

Virginia. The fourth annual report of the Virginia state board of charities and corrections is published under the title "Social Service in Virginia." It includes an account of the administration of the state charitable and correctional institutions and also of county and city institutions, with statistics and recommendations.

The proceedings of the Virginia Conference on Charities and Corrections, held at Danville, January 26–28, 1913, includes papers on municipal health departments, the city housing problem, and the work of the Richmond juvenile court.

Seattle, Wash. The annual report of the juvenile court for 1912 has been published in a small booklet, with a report on the clinical classification of delinquent children according to causative pathology.

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Park Reports.—*Chicago.* The public parks in Chicago are administered by several distinct authorities, mutually independent of each other. One result of this situation is the lack of any comprehensive report of the park facilities as a whole, and a marked contrast in the style and effectiveness of the reports of the different park authorities. The forty-fourth annual report of the West Chicago park commissioners is an elaborate and expensive publication, printed on heavy calendered paper, with numerous illustrations. The report of the special park commission, appointed under the authority of the council, is much less expensive, but is a well printed pamphlet with several good illustrations, giving a satisfactory account of the small parks and playgrounds under the control of this commission. The Lincoln park commissioners publish only a small leaflet presenting a financial summary, but with no information as to the operation or development of this portion of the Chicago parks.

Detroit. The twenty-third annual report of the department of parks and boulevards is also an illustrated pamphlet printed on good paper, including both financial statements and information as to the management and development of the park system. Special attention may be called to the increased attention to the care of street trees, the inauguration of an automobile service to Belle Isle (the principal city park) and a financial summary by years since the establishment of the department.

The Pennsylvania Chestnut Tree Blight Commission has published two bulletins on the chestnut blight disease and the treatment of ornamental chestnut trees affected with the blight disease.

✢

Water Supply.—*Illinois.* The proceedings of the fifth meeting of the Illinois Water Supply Association is a substantial volume of 277 pages, containing some forty papers on various problems connected with public water supplies. The association includes both municipal water works and private companies, and the secretary is the director of the state water survey. The meeting was held at the University of Illinois, March 11 and 12, and among the papers the following may be noted: "Legal Aspects of Financing Municipal Water Works," by E. V. Orvis, commissioner of public property, Waukegan, Ills.; "Vital Statistics and Water Supplies," by Paul Hansen, state water survey; and the "Appraisal of Water Works Properties," by Douglas A. Graham, consulting engineer, Chicago. Other papers dealt with a variety of technical engineering and sanitary problems, and with local conditions in a number of Illinois cities, such as Moline, Rock Island, Rockford, Pana and Danville.

Industrial Water Charges. The bureau of water in the Philadelphia department of public works has been publishing a water supply educational series of booklets. No. 2 is a study of industrial water charges, dealing principally with charges in excess of $200. This presents the facts of the existing situation without suggesting improvements; but it is hoped that the study of these data will lead the city towards a more equitable system of levying water charges on industrial plants and other large water users.

⁂

Reports of Civic Associations and Educational Institutions Received.—Portland, Ore. Municipal Association, for year ending September 30, 1912.

Tax Association of Alameda County (Cal.) Suggestions for Consideration in Preparing a Charter for Alameda County. February, 1913.

The Civic League of St. Louis: Eleventh Year-Book, 1911-12.

Massachusetts Civil Service Association: Report of the Executive Committee, Boston, 1912.

Citizens' Federation of Hudson County, N. J.: First Annual Report of the Secretary, May, 1912–May, 1913; The New Jersey Legislature of 1913.

City Club of Chicago: Annual Reports of Civic Committees, 1912–13, in the *City Club Bulletin*, June 28, 1913.

National Consumers League: Thirteenth Report, for the year ending January 19, 1912.

Fairmount Park Art Association: Forty-first Annual Report of the Board of Trustees, 1913.

Commission of Fine Arts: Message from the President Transmitting Report for the Fiscal Year ending June 30, 1912.

Training School for Public Service, conducted by the New York Bureau of Municipal Research: Annual Report, 1912.

Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy: Alumni Register, 1903–1913; Summer School, 1913.

⁂

Central Purchase and Distribution of Supplies.—Under date of March 15, 1913, Comptroller Prendergast of New York City presented to the board of estimate and apportionment a report submitting a plan of a proposed system for the central purchase and distribution of supplies for the city, with copies of the forms necessary to carry the system into effect. The detailed plan was prepared by W. Richmond Smith, with the coöperation of experts in the department of finance. This plan was developed from that of the Canadian Pacific Railway, which purchases four times as much as the city of New York.

There are in the city government of New York one hundred and twenty different departments, bureaus and offices vested with the power to purchase supplies. The proposed plan contemplates the centralization of the purchase of all supplies through a general purchasing agent, and their distribution to the various offices from a general city storehouse, operated as a clearing house for all except perishable supplies and coal, wood and forage.[1]

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Government Bulletins.—Various bureaus of the United States government issue from time to time bulletins of information and advice on municipal problems. Public health Bulletin No. 54, issued by the U. S. Public Health Service, gives an analysis of the laws and regulations of the various states on the organization, powers and duties of health officers. This traces briefly the historical development, and describes more fully the present organization of state and local health authorities. An appendix contains the text of the various state and territorial health laws, and head notes of judicial divisions relating to such laws.

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[1] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. ii, p. 221.

Circular 185 of the Bureau of Animal Industry gives a brief account of state and municipal meat inspection and municipal slaughter houses.

Bulletin 49 of the Bureau of Mines is a discussion of city smoke ordinances and smoke abatement in the United States, by Samuel B. Flagg.

⁂

Public Lectures in New York City.—The report of Supervisor Henry M. Leipziger on the public lectures given under the direction of the department of education of New York City shows that in the year 1911–12, these lectures were given at 174 centers, to 5573 audiences, aggregating an attendance of 1,000,190. The report gives in detail the list of lecture centers, a classified list of lectures and examination questions. The various lectures are grouped in four main divisions: literature, history, sociology and art; general and applied science; descriptive geography; and lectures in foreign laguages (Italian, Yiddish and German). In the sub-division of social subjects are several series of lectures on municipal topics, notably on municipal courts and the work of various departments of city administration.

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Wisconsin Fire Insurance Investigation.—A joint committee of the Wisconsin legislature of 1911 has submitted a report of an investigation of fire insurance with recommendations for changes in the laws. The investigation and report deal with the principles of fire insurance, fire insurance companies, the policy contract, rates and methods of rate making, methods and expenses of the business, fire prevention, supervision and state insurance. The recommendations are summarized under thirty-three heads and fifteen bills are submitted. The most important recommendations are for the review of fire insurance rates by the insurance department, the consolidation of the fire marshal and oil inspector with the insurance department, and a legislative committee to prepare a state building code and city planning law.

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Schenectady Contract Specifications.—The bureau of engineering of the Schenectady, N. Y., department of public works has issued a pamphlet of 56 pages containing detailed information in regard to contracts for paving in that city. This includes instructions to bidders, form of proposal, form of contract and specifications, for paving and incidental work. These are significant because prepared by the Socialist administration of this city. The commissioner of public works recommends that a guarantee bond be not required, holding that under the new form of contract good pavements can be secured by proper inspection and supervision, and that a guarantee is superfluous and an added expense with no added value.

⁂

Special Libraries.—Recent numbers of *Special Libraries* contain the following bibliographical lists bearing on municipal problems.

February, 1913: Select List of References on Fire Prevention; Public Utility References.

March, 1913: Selected References on Markets and Marketing.

April, 1913: List of Uniform Accounts formulated by companies, associations and state commissions.

May, 1913: Select List of References on Scientific Management and Efficiency, Subdivision on government.

⁂

Sewage Disposal in New York.—No. 6 of the preliminary reports of the metropolitan sewerage commission of New York is a study of the collection and disposal of the sewage of the lower Hudson, lower East River and Bay division. No.

7, in the same series, presents the critical reports of the Dr. Gilbert J. Fowler of Manchester, England and Mr. John D. Watson of Birmingham, England on the projects of the metropolitan sewerage commission. This agrees in advocating the construction of main drainage channels to carry off the main sewage of lower New York into the Atlantic Ocean.

⁂

Cleveland Street Railways.—A pamphlet entitled "The Essentials of Street Railway Regulation in Cleveland" has been issued from the office of the city street railroad commissioner of that city. This contains a digest of the provisions of the ordinances under the terms of which the surface lines of Cleveland are operated, with summarized monthly reports of the Cleveland Railway Company, and a skeleton statement of the street railroad commissioner's control over the expenditures of the company.[1]

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Suppression of Noise.—A paper on the "Suppression of Unnecessary Noise," by Edward S. Morse of Salem, Mass., read under the auspices of the Ninth International Otological Congress, in Boston, August 14, 1912, has been republished in pamphlet form.

The Bulletin of the Medical and Chirurgical Faculty of Maryland for January, 1913, is devoted to the anti-noise crusade, which has been actively undertaken by the anti-noise committee of the Baltimore City Medical Society.

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[1] See National Municipal Review, vol. 1, p. 630.

DEPARTMENT OF REPORTS AND DOCUMENTS

II. BIBLIOGRAPHICAL[1]

EDITED BY MISS ADELAIDE R. HASSE

Chief of the Division of Documents, New York Public Library

AMERICAN CITY BUREAU. Selected list of municipal and civic books. 1913. 56 p. 8°. **Np.**

Gratis. Address: 93 Nassau street, New York City.

AMSTERDAM, NETH. Amsterdam in demographisch en hygiënisch opzicht. 1913. 64 p. 4°. **Np.**

No. 43 of the Statistical Communications of the Bureau of Statistics of the city of Amsterdam. A reproduction of the charts exhibited by the Bureau at the International Exposition at Ghent. An exceedingly useful publication as it is not confined to Amsterdam but includes comparative graphs relative to the demography of the larger European cities. Price fr. 0. 50 the copy.

BERLIN, GERMANY. Berliner Jahrbuch für Handel und Industrie. Bericht der Ältesten der Kaufmannschaft von Berlin. Jahrg. 1912. Bd. 2. ix, 639 p. 8°. **Np.**

There is no better source for information on economic and industrial conditions of Berlin.

BRÜNN, AUSTRIA. Summarischer Bericht der Handels und Gewerbekammer in Brünn über die geschäftlichen Verhältnisse in ihrem Bezirke während des Jahres 1912. vi, 258 p. 8°. **Np.**

CHICAGO ASSOCIATION OF COMMERCE. A brief list of suggestions to public improvement associations, from the committee on down town streets of the Chicago Association of Commerce, by Louis A. Dumond, engineer of committee. 1913(?) 55 (1) p. 8°. **Cj; Cs.**

CITIZEN'S FEDERATION OF HUDSON COUNTY, N. J. Citizens Bulletin no. 5. Report of the legislative activities of the Federation. The New Jersey Legislature of 1913. 32 p. 8°. **Np.**

Among the important measures affecting municipal government and which were either drafted or approved by the Federation is the Kerwin bill providing for a commission of five mayors to report on an administrative code for the municipalities of New Jersey and the Porter bill permitting any municipality to adopt as an alternative to the commission government plan, the city manager plan.

CITY CLUB OF CHICAGO. The City Club Bulletin. **Cc; Cj; Cm; Cp; Cs; Np; Sp.**

Vol. 6, nos. 9–11, June 9–July 23, 1913. 167–238 p. 8°.

No. 9, p. 175–182. Non-partisan election of municipal officers.

No. 11, p. 215–221. The railway terminal problem in Chicago.

No. 11, p. 229–238. The noise problem in Chicago.

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[1] By arrangement with the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy and the St. Louis Municipal Reference Branch of the Public Library, the libraries of those cities will hereafter coöperate in the compilation of the bibliography printed in the National Municipal Review. The task of assembling the Chicago material has been undertaken by Miss Renée B. Stern of the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy. Mr. A. L. Bostwick of the St. Louis Municipal Reference Branch will assemble the material for St. Louis. The symbols attached to titles in the bibliography indicate the libraries which have reported the receipt of the title.

Explanation of Symbols

Cc, Chicago, City Club Library
Cj, Chicago, John Crerar Library
Cm, Chicago, Municipal Library
Cp, Chicago, Chicago Public Library
Cs, Chicago, Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy
Np, New York City, New York Public Library
Sp, St. Louis, St. Louis Public Library.

In this connection it may be well to state that it is not the intention to include titles of annual reports in the Bibliography, except in special instances. An annual report issued for the first time will always be included, as well as one issued in a changed form, as, for instance, in this issue the report of the Beloit Industrial School Board and the Los Angeles Housing Commission. An annual report containing unusual features will also be noted, as was in the last issue, the Portland, Oregon, Park Board annual report.

City Club of Milwaukee, Wis. Activities of the City Club of Milwaukee during the fiscal year ending May 27, 1913. 19 p. 8°. **Cs.**

Dayton, O. Bureau of municipal research. Organization and administration of the department of health of Dayton, O. 97 p. 8°. **Np.**

Funk, N. R. Pictorial history of the great Dayton flood. March 25, 26, 27, 1913. 63 p. illus. 8°. **Cs.**

Four pages of text giving data of conditions.

Hamburg, Germany. Hamburg's Handel im Jahre 1912. Sachverständigen Berichte, herausgegeben auf Veranlassung der Handelskammer. 129 p. 8°. **Np.**

Hoag, C. G. The representative council plan of city government. 1913. 12 p. 8°. **Cp.**

American Proportional Representation League pamphlet no. 2, April, 1913.

Kristiania, Norway. Beretning om Kristiania handel, industri og skibsfart; året 1912. Utgit på foranstaltning av børs- og handelskomitéen. 1913. 67 p; foldg. diagr. 8°. **Np.**

Los Angeles, Cal. Municipal League. Efficiency in Los Angeles city government. August, 1913? 11 p. 8°. **Cc.**

New Orleans, La. An act to provide a commission form of government for the city of New Orleans. 46 p. 8°. (Act no. 159, senate bill no. 206.) **Cm.**

New York City. Municipal year book of the city of New York. 1913. 190 p. 8.° **Np.**

Prepared under the direction of Robert Adamson, secretary to the mayor. The first year book issued for New York City.

Richmond, Va. Chamber of Commerce. Richmond, Virginia, yesterday and today. 1913. 69 p. 8°. illus. **Np.**

Issued jointly by the city and the Chamber of Commerce.

Saskatchewan. Department of municipal affairs. Annual report [fifth] for the financial year ending February 28, 1913. 106 p. 8.° **Np.**

Stockholm, Sweden. Stockholms Kommunalkalender för år 1913. Årgang 7. 433 p. 2 maps. 8°. **Np.**

—— Minnesskrift vid Stockholms stadsfullmäktiges femtioårsjubileum den 20 April 1913. Stockholm, 1913. 223, viii, viii, 139 p. plates. 3 maps. f°. **Np.**

A beautiful volume, being a fifty year summary of the civic history of Stockholm.

Williams, Edward T. The commercial development at Niagara, 1805–1913. 9 p. narrow 4°. **Np.**

Address: E. T. Williams, Industrial Agent, Niagara Falls, N. Y.

Woman's City Club of Chicago. Hand book, City Welfare Exhibit. Chicago, Woman's City Club. 1913. 28 p. 8°. **Cj; Cs.**

"Bibliography," p. 3, 24–26.

Bill Boards

New York City. Report of the Mayor's billboard advertising commission of the city of New York. August 1, 1913. 151 p. illus. 8°. **Np.**

Building Construction

Chattanooga, Tenn. Building code. 1913. 131 p. 8°. **Np.**

New York City. Text of the proposed building code for New York City. (City Record. July 17, 1913, p. 7027–7045.) **Np.**

Charters and Ordinances

Ordinances relating to special subjects are classed with that subject; see, for instance, "Building Construction," "Public Health,'" etc.

Canton, O. Text of proposed charter. Prepared by the first charter commission. To be submitted to the electors July 15, 1913. 28 p. 8°. **Np.**

Cleveland, O. Charter commission. Journal. February 6–May 23, 1913. 182 p. **Np.**

In bound form, the Journal includes in addition to the proceedings, three prints of the charter, of 66, 61 and 80 pages resp.

Cleveland, O. Proposed charter for the city of Cleveland. Prepared and proposed by the charter commission. July 1, 1913. 80 p. 8°. **Np.**

Cortland, N. Y. Charter of the city of Cortland, N. Y. Enacted March 16, 1900. Reprinted 1913. 181 p. 8°. **Np.**

Dayton, O. Charter commission. Proposed charter for the city of Dayton. 1913. 51 p. 8°. **Np.**

Reprinted for and distributed by the Bureau of Municipal Research, 601–603 Schwind Building, Dayton.

Elyria, O. Proposed charter for the city of Elyria. Prepared and proposed by the charter commission. To be submitted to the electors July 15, 1913. 40 p. 8°. **Np.**

Frankfurt a. M., Germany. Bürgerbuch (Sammlung von Verordnungen) der Stadtgemeinde Frankfurt a. M. Amtliche Ausgabe 1912. xvi, 102, 52, 311, 94, 183 p. 4°. **Np.**

One map in pocket. Map is a "Bauzonenplan" of Frankfurt, i.e. a map showing respectively the residence and factory districts, the suburban quarters, etc.

Stockholm, Sweden. Kommunalförfattningssamling för Stockholm. Ny serie. Arg. 4. 1912. v. p. 8°. **Np.**

Text of ordinances no. 1–144.

Straits Settlements. The municipal ordinance 1913. Ordinance no. 8 of 1913. 163 p. 8°. **Np.**

The municipal code in force in the Straits Settlements.

Youngstown, O. Charter commission. Proposed charter for the city of Youngstown. July 22, 1913. 80 p. 8°. **Cp; Np.**

—— Origin, substance and principles of the political program provided for in the Youngstown charter. 1913. 16 p. 16°. **Cp; Np.**

City Planning

Delhi, India. Town planning committee. Report (1–2 and final) on choice of a site for the new imperial capital. London, 1913. f.° **Np.**

First report. On choice of a site for the new imperial capital. 9 pp., 2 maps. Price 1s. 2d.

Second report. Regarding the north site with medical report. 9, 40 p., 2 maps. Price 1s. 3d.

Final report. Regarding the selected site. iii, 19 p., 2 maps. Price 1s. 8d.

Jersey City, N. J. Addenda memoranda to report of suggested plan of procedure for city plan commission. City of Jersey City, N. J. By E. P. Goodrich and Geo. B. Ford. Issued May 1, 1913. 33 p. 4°. **Np.**

—— Report of suggested plan of procedure for city plan commission. City of Jersey City, N. J. By E. P. Goodrich and Geo. B. Ford. Issued May 1, 1913. 64 p., 5 leaves. 4°. **Np.**

Mawson, Thomas. Address before the Canadian Club of Calgary, May 26, 1913, on city planning. **Np.**

Printed in full in the *Calgary News-Telegram*, May 26, 1913. Relates chiefly to the beautification of Calgary.

National Conference on City Planning. Fifth national conference on city planning program held at Chicago, May 5–7, 1913. 7 p. 8°. **Cm; Np.**

St. Louis, Mo. City plan commission. The river front; possible municipal ownership of a railway from Chain of Rocks to River des Peres, with additional approach to the Municipal Bridge. 1913. **Sp.**

Wacker, C. H. Creating a world-famous street; argument of C. H W., chairman of the Chicago plan commission in behalf of widening and extending Michigan Avenue to properly connect the north and south sides of Chicago; with ordinance for same, detailed drawings and estimate of cost as prepared by the board of local improvements of the city of Chicago. 1913. 57 p. 8°. **Cm.**

—— Gaining public support for a city planning movement . . . . being an address delivered before the fifth conference on city planning, Chicago, May, 1913. 16 p. 8°. **Cp.**

—— A statement by Charles H. Wacker, chairman of the Chicago plan commission in rebuttal of the statement made by the Union Station Company through its attorney to the council committee on railway terminals on June 9, 1913. Statement to the council committee on Railway terminals on behalf of the executive officers and the architectural and engineering staff of the Chicago plan commission. June 30, 1913. 29 p. **Cc.**

Civil Service

Cook County, Ill. Civil service commission. Cook County civil service laws and rules. 1913. 51 p. 8°. **Cs.**

Courts

Cook County, Ill. Adult probation office. First annual report of adult probation office of Cook County, from October 1, 1911, to September 30, 1912. 20 p. 8°. **Cm.**

New York City. Board of city magistrates (second division). Annual report for the year ending December 31, 1912. 229 p., 1 leaf, 14 plates. 8°. **Np.**

The report was not issued until June 1913. The second division comprises the boroughs of Brooklyn, Queens and Richmond. The report includes among others reports of the magistrate presiding in the domestic relations court, and of the chief probation officer. There are general tables summarizing the work of the Court from 1898 and detailed tables from 1902.

Electoral Reform

Chicago, Ill. Board of election commissioners. Election laws relating to general and special elections in the city of Chicago and Town of Cicero in the state of Illinois. 1913. 111 p. 4°. **Cs.**

—— State of Illinois. Primary election laws. February, 1913. 61 p. 8°. **Cs; Np.**

—— City council. A bill for nonpartisan elections for municipal offices, transmitted to city council by Carter H. Harrison, mayor, on February 6, 1913, concurred in by city council March 31, 1913. 24 p. 8°. **Cm.**

City Club of Chicago. Non-partisan election of municipal officers. Discussion by Kellogg Fairbank, Hon. John P. McGoorty, Ald. William F. Lipps, Hon. John O'Connor, Hon. William E. Dever, Hon. Medill McCormick and Hon. Morton D. Hull, 1912–1913. June 9, 1913. p. 175–182. (City Club Bulletin, vol. 6, no. 9.) **Cc; Cj; Cm; Cp; Cs; Np.**

Shann, George. Registration, nominations, ballots, expenses and the corrupt practices act in British elections. Address before the City Club of Chicago, March 15, 1913. p. 182–190. (City Club Bulletin, vol. 6, no. 9.) **Cc; Cj; Cm; Cp; Cs; Np.**

Finance

Baltimore, Md. Bureau of State and municipal research. **Np.**

Report 2. The Baltimore budget. Part 1. A study of the ordinances of estimates from 1900 to 1913. January 18, 1913. 5 p., 6 plates. 4°.

Report 3–4. Not seen.

Report 5. City of Baltimore. Balance sheets 1911, 1912. General accounts 1912. June 9, 1913. 13 p. 4°.

Cook County, Ill. Appropriation bill for 1913. 37 p. 16°. **Cm; Np.**

Dayton, O. Bureau of municipal research. Appropriations for the fiscal half year ending December 31, 1913. 30 p. 8°. **Np.**

Massachusetts. Bureau of statistics. Report of a special investigation relative to the sinking funds and serial loans of the cities and towns of the commonwealth. March 5, 1913. 25 p. 8°. **Np.**

This is one of a series of special reports on municipal finance recently issued by this Bureau; viz. Outstanding indebtedness of certain cities and towns of Massachusetts. March, 1911. 34 p. (Its municipal Bulletin 4.) Report of a special investigation relative to the indebtedness of the cities and towns of the Commonwealth. April 15, 1912. 286 p.

In January, 1913, the commonwealth issued "Report of the joint special committee on municipal finance." 103 p. 80°.

New York City. Department of finance. Semi-annual financial summary. June 30, 1913. xi p., 25 folios. 8°. Np.

The fourth number of this publication. This number covers the financial operations of the city for the first six months of 1913 and contains, besides, many comparative tables covering a series of years.

St. Louis, Mo. Special report of the comptroller of the city of St. Louis for the first four months of the fiscal year 1912–13, compared with similar periods of 1913–14. 1913. Sp.

Valuable figures regarding assessed valuation and taxation in St. Louis are brought together in convenient form.

Fires

Fire Apparatus Figures. Horse-drawn, automobile and hand apparatus. Amount of each kind in each of six hundred American cities. (Municipal Journal. August 28, 1913, p. 277–294.) Cc; Cp; Cm; Np; Sp.

Stockholm, Sweden. Berättelse angående Stockholms stads brandväsen jämte översikt av brand- och ambulansstatistiken för år 1912. Årg. 37. 43, 19 p. plates. 4°. Np.

Grade Crossings

St. Louis, Mo. Public library—municipal reference branch. Grade crossing elimination in American cities. Legislation, work done, and present tendencies. July, 1913. p. 157–174. (St. Louis Public Library. Monthly Bulletin, July, 1913.) Cp; Np; Sp.

Housing

Ansiedlungs-Verein Gross-Berlin. Vierter Jahresbericht, 1912–13. 8 p. 8°. Np.

An association of specialists organized to promote housing reform and general civic improvement in greater Berlin. The present chairman is Dr. R. Kuczinsky, well known as the director of the statistical bureau of Schöneberg as well as the author of important economic works.

Bryce, Rt. Hon. James. The menace of great cities. June, 1913. 17 p. 8°. Np.

A plea for better living conditions, housing betterment, more open spaces, etc. National Housing Assoc. Publications. No. 20. Price, 5 cents the copy.

Chicago, Ill. City Club. City Club housing exhibition, April 25 to June 1, 1913. Guide to the exhibition. Chicago, 1913. 55 p. 8°. Cm; Cs; Np.

Forbes, Elmer S. Rural and suburban housing. June, 1913. 10 p. 8° Cc; Cp; Cs; Np.

National Housing Assoc. Publications. No. 21. Price 5 cents the copy.

Frankfurt a. M. West- und nordwestlicher Bezirksverein. Mitteilungen No. 17. January, 1913. 12 p. 4°. Np.

Contains text of addresses respectively by the Stadtrat Dr. Hermann Luppe on building ordinances and building projects, and by the Justizrat, Dr. Fritz Meyer, on regulation of mortgages.

Goodrich, E. P. and George B. Ford. Housing report to the city plan commission of Newark, N. J. 1913. 75 p. illus. 8°. Np.

Los Angeles, Cal. Report (fourth) of the housing commission of the city of Los Angeles, July 1, 1910, to March 31, 1913. 66 p. illus. 8°. Np.

The Los Angeles housing commission was abolished on May 3, 1913. Henceforth it will be a bureau of the health department, with greatly increased powers. The previous reports of the commission collate as follows:

1. 1906/8. Feb. 20–June 30. 1908. 31 p. illus. 8°.
2. 1908/9. July 1–June 30. 1909. 29 p. illus. 8°.
3. 1909/10. July 1–June 30. 1910. 28 p. illus. 8°.

National Housing Association. Housing Betterment. vol. 2, no. 2. July, 1913. 19 p. 8°. Np.

A news issue. Previous issues are as follows: v. 1, no. 1. February, 1912. 4 leaves. v. 1, no. 2 September 1912. 15 p. v. 2, no. 1. March, 1913. 15 p.

—— Publication No. 19. "There ain't no law." June, 1913. 32 p. illus. 8°. Cc; Cp; Cs; Np.

A pamphlet used during the recent campaign to secure a housing code for the six New York State cities of the second class, viz., Albany, Schenectady, Syracuse, Troy, Utica and Yonkers. These cities banded together under the guidance of the National Housing Association. The result was the best housing code yet enacted. It became a law on May 31, 1913, and constitutes chap. 774 of the Laws of 1913.

Norris, George W. The housing problem in Philadelphia. A lecture delivered in the Catholic Summer School Extension Course, Philadelphia, March 3, 1913. 30 p. 8°. **Np.**

No. 2 of the Catholic Summer School Extension Lectures.

Philadelphia, Pa. Housing commission. Second annual report for the year ending December 31, 1912. 31 p. 8°. **Cc; Np.**

There is a notable paragraph on p. 13, dealing with the question of improvements and rent. The statements there made are interesting in that it is commonly believed that the improvements forced by housing reformers inevitably lead to higher rents.

San Francisco, Cal. Housing Association. Second report. June, 1913. 32 p. 8°. **Cs; Np.**

White, Alfred T. The effect of a housing law. June, 1913. 6 p. 8°. **Cc; Cp; Cs; Np.**

National Housing Association Publications. No. 22. Price, 5 cents the copy. Address 105 E. 22d street, New York City.

Motion Pictures

Bartholomew, Robert O. Report of censorship of motion pictures and of investigation of motion picture theatres of Cleveland. 1913. 32 p. 8°. **Np.**

Filed with council of city of Cleveland April 7, 1913. Address: R. E. Collins, city clerk, Cleveland.

Municipal Art Commissions

Philadelphia, Pa. Art jury. Second annual report, 1912. 45 p. illus., 1 foldg. plate. 8°. **Np.**

Established under Act of May 25, 1907. The approval of the art jury is required before any work of art may become the property of the city. Designs for public buildings, parks, street fixtures, etc. etc. may be submitted to the jury. The jury was appointed on October 7, 1911 and at the time of its first report, viz., February 5, 1911, ten submissions had been made. During the calendar year 1912, 67 submissions were made to or considered by the jury.

Municipal Banks

Prague, Bohemia. A report on the city savings bank of Prague for the year 1912. 42 p. 4°. **Cm.**

Municipal Lodging Houses

Vienna, Austria. Das Asyl- und Werkhaus der Stadt Wien. 1913. 27 p. illus. 8°. **Np.**

Historical account of the municipal refuge.

Noise Abatement

Nance, Dr. W. O. The noise problem in Chicago. Address before the City Club of Chicago, June 17, 1913. p. 229–238. (City Club Bulletin, vol. 6, no. 11.) **Cc; Cj; Cm; Cp; Cs; Np.**

Parks

Great Britain. Regent's Park enclosures. Papers relating to the enclosures in Regent's Park. 1913. 64 p., 3 maps. f°. **Np.**

Price 1s. 3d. the copy.

United States. District of Columbia committee (senate). The improvement of the park system of the District of Columbia. 1913. 27 p., 20 plates. 8°. (63d congress, 1 session, sen. doc. 16. **Cp; Np; Sp.**

An abridgment of an earlier document, viz., Sen. report 166, 57th congress, 1 session, compiled by Charles Moore and published in 1902. The present abridgment is made by George H. Gall, of Washington, D. C. Much of the detail of the earlier report is omitted in this volume. On the other hand many projects recommended in the earlier volume have been completed and are described in this volume. The plates relate particularly to the Lincoln Memorial and the possibilities of the Rock Creek development.

Pensions

New York City. Commissioners of accounts. Report on the pension system of the city of New York. Submitted May 27, 1913. 12 p. 8°. **Cm; Np.**

Police

Chicago, Ill. Civil service commission. Book of instruction to applicants for the position of patrolman in the department of police, city of Chicago. [n.d.] 64 p. 16°. **Cp.**

Copenhagen, Denmark. Police regulations of the city of Copenhagen, March, 1913. 1913. 71 p. 16°. **Cm.**

Dublin, Ireland. Metropolitan police board. Statistical tables of the Dublin metropolitan police for the year 1912. vii, 33 p. f°. **Np.**

Issued annually since 1894. Sold by H. M. Stationary Office, London. Price of 1912 report 4½d.

Great Britain. Home office. Police weekly rest day. Return showing to what extent steps have been taken by various English cities for putting into force the provisions of the police (weekly rest day) act, 1910, and the estimated cost thereof. 1913. 5 p. f°. **Np.**

Price 1d. the copy.

New York City. Report of the special committee ("Curran committee") of the board of aldermen appointed August 5, 1912, to investigate the police department. Submitted June 10, 1913. 147 p. 4°. **Cp; Np.**

Philadelphia, Pa. Bureau of police. Patrolman's manual. Issued by the department of public safety. 1913. 231 p. 8°. **Np.**

Port Development

Chicago, Ill. Citizens' Association. Report regarding the so-called Kleeman bill, now pending in the state senate providing for the construction of an enormously expansive inland harbor in Lake Calumet by the Sanitary District of Chicago. May 12, 1913. 4 p. 8°. **Cm.**

Cleveland, O. Reports of the Cleveland river and harbor commission on the improvement of Cuyahoga River. March, 1913. 28 p., 1 map. 8°. **Np.**

New York State. Report of the commission to investigate port conditions and pier extensions in New York harbor. 1913. 18 p. 2 maps. 8°. **Np.**

Seattle, Wash. Public Library. Harbors and docks. A list of books and references. February, 1913. 40 p. 8°. **Np.**

Tompkins, Calvin. New York's port problem. Railroad monopoly vs. city control. Argument before the board of estimate and apportionment of the city of New York. Upon the report of its terminal committee on Manhattan West Side (N. Y. Central) readjustment. May 27, 1913. 15 p. 8°. **Cm; Np.**

Reprinted by the Reform Club, 9 South William st., New York City.

Toronto, Canada. Waterfront development, 1912–1920. 32 p., maps, diagrs. 8°. **Cm.**

[Public Health

New York City. Department of health. Hand book of information regarding the routine procedure of the division of communicable diseases. 1913. 200 p. 12°. **Np.**

St. Paul, Minn. Anti-tuberculosis committee. Efficiency and next needs of St. Paul's health department. Report submitted by the New York bureau of municipal research and training school for public service. March, 1913. 48 p. 8°. **Np.**

United States. Public health service. Municipal ordinances, rules and regulations pertaining to public health adopted from July 1, 1911, to December 31, 1911, by cities of the United States having a population of over 10,000 in 1910. Compiled by John W. Trask. Washington, 1913. 215 p. 8°. **Cp; Np; Sp.**

Public Utilities

Chicago, Ill. Board of supervising engineers. Reply to an order by Chicago city council for information respecting improvements made under 1907 ordinance in service, operation and equipment of the Chicago Surface Traction Company. July 3, 1913. 35 p. **Cc.**

—— City council. Report of the committee on gas, oil and electric light on the investigation of the Commonwealth Edison Company. Chicago, May, 1913. 113 p. 8°. **Cp.**

—— Civil service commission. Reports on the department of electricity of the city of Chicago. Inquiries conducted by request of Mr. Ray Palmer, city electrician, May 24 to November 29, 1912. Conditions, modifications and systems in use and organization of the department of electricity. Published July 7, 1913. 40 p. **Cc.**

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA. Public utilities commission. Order no. 21. In re regulations for the operation and equipment of street railway cars in the District of Columbia. July 9, 1913. 14 p. 8°. **Np.**

ELECTRIC LIGHT PLANTS. Data from municipal and private plants in all parts of the country; equipment, operation, finances and rates. (Municipal Journal, August 7, 1913, p. 171–186.) **Cc; Cm; Cp; Np.**

NEBRASKA. State railway commission. Before the . . . . commission. Application no. 1637. Lincoln Telephone and Telegraph Company applicant (for authority to consolidate its exchanges in Lincoln district and to establish rates for service). Findings and order of the commission. 35 p. 8°. **Np.**

NEVADA. Public service commission. City of Ely complainant vs. Ely Light and Power Company respondent. Opinion and order. Filed June 7, 1913. 14 p. 8°. **Np.**

NEW YORK CITY. Board of estimate and apportionment. Bureau of franchises. Reports no. 116–122. 4°.

No. 116. April 28, 1913. Upon application of the Union Railway Company of New York City for amendments to contract. 6 p. 1 map. **Cm; Np.**

No. 117. Upon appliication of New York Quotation Company for franchise to construct conductors in conduits. May 2, 1913. 15 p. **Cm; Np.**

No. 118. Upon application of Manhattan and Queens Traction Corporation for two extensions. May 12, 1913. 7 p., 1 map. **Cm; Np.**

No. 119. Upon application of Bronx Traction Company for franchise to construct a street railway. May 29, 1913. 14 p. 1 map. **Cm; Np.**

No. 120. Upon application of Long Island Rail Road to construct certain railroad tracks June 2, 1913. 16 p., 2 maps. **Cm; Np.**

No. 121. Calling attention to excessive expense to applicants for franchises in providing publicity in manner prescribed by sec. 74 of the city charter. June 6, 1913. 7 p. **Cm; Np.**

No. 122. Upon application of Brooklyn City Railroad company for franchise to construct street surface railway. 14 p., 1 map. **Np.**

—— Resolutions 23–88. 1913. p. 283–569. **Np.**

NEW YORK STATE. Public service commission (first district). New subways for New York. The dual system of rapid transit. June, 1913. 83 p. plates 8°. **Np.**

Address: Public Service Commission for First District, 154 Nassau street, New York City.

ST. LOUIS, MO. Public service commission. Report of the Municipal Assembly on the United Railways Company of St. Louis by the St. Louis Public Service Commission. vol. ii. St. Louis, 1913. 34 p. 3 maps. 27 tables. 34 diagrs. 8°. **Cm; Sp.**

SALT LAKE CITY, UTAH. Revised ordinances pertaining to water supply and waterworks office, Salt Lake City. In effect July 1, 1913. 28 p. 8°. **Np.**

UNITED RAILWAYS AND ELECTRIC COMPANY OF BALTIMORE. History and description of property and securities. April 21, 1913. 38 p. 8°. **Np.**

Published by Alex. Brown and Sons, Baltimore, Md.

WILMINGTON, DEL. Public utility commission. First annual report for the fiscal year ending July 31, 1912. 10 p. 8°. **Np.**

—— Rules and regulations. 1912. 12 p. 12°. **Np.**

Schools

BELOIT, WIS. Industrial school board. First annual report of the industrial, continuation and evening schools of Beloit for the year 1912–1913. 23 p. illus. 8°. **Np.**

BERLIN, GERMANY. Schulgesundheitspflege der Stadt Berlin. 1912. 84 p, 24 plates. 8°. **Np.**

CITY CLUB OF BERKELEY, CAL. Berkeley Civic Club Bulletin. Monthly. vol. 2, no. 1. August 15, 1913. 16 p. 8°. **Np.**

The entire Bulletin is devoted to a consideration of coöperative industrial education. Sold at 10 cents the copy. The treatment is a practical review of what has been done in American cities to promote industrial coöperation.

Smoke Abatement

NEW YORK CITY. Court of special sessions. Decision in suit of the New York City department of health against the New York Edison Company for infraction of section 181 of the sanitary code prohibiting the discharge of dense smoke. **Cm; Np.**

An extended quotation of the decision is printed in the weekly bulletin of the health department of New York City of July 19, 1913.

—— Department of health. The smoke problem in New York. (Monthly bulletin of the department of health. April, 1913. vol. 3, no. 4, p. 79–108.) **Cm; Np.**

PITTSBURGH, PA. The history of the smoke nuisance and of smoke abatement in Pittsburgh. **Cm.**

Reprinted from the *Industrial World*, Pittsburgh, March 24, 1913.

UNIVERSITY OF PITTSBURGH. Department of industrial research. Outline of the smoke investigation. August, 1912. 16 p. 8°. **Cm; Np.**

Bulletin no. 1.

Social Centers

CHICAGO, ILL. Board of Education. Report of social centers in Chicago public schools. Biennial. 1912. 45 p. illus. 8°. **Cs.**

KANSAS CITY, MO. Research bureau of the board of public welfare. The social center in Kansas City. June, 1913. 16 p. illus. 8°. **Cs; Np.**

NEW JERSEY.

The New Jersey legislature of 1913 in passing the Hennessy Bill provided that the board of education of any school district in the state might permit the use of the schoolhouse and grounds for assemblies or the purpose of giving and receiving instruction in any branch of education, learning or the arts, for public library purposes, for holding social, civic and recreation meetings and entertainments approved by the board of education, for polling places, for holding elections and for the registration of voters, and for holding political meetings.

NEW YORK STATE.

By an act to amend the education law (ch. 221, Laws of 1913; passed April 5, 1913) the New York state legislature made substantially the same provisions for the use of schools as social centers, as does the above cited New Jersey act.

PERRY, CLARENCE ARTHUR. How to start social centers. 40 p. 8°. **Np.**

Russell Sage Foundation, Department of Recreations, 400 Metropolitan Tower, New York City. Price 10 cents the copy.

Social Evil

See also below "Social Surveys" under Kansas City.

COMMONWEALTH CLUB OF CALIFORNIA, SAN FRANCISCO. Transactions, vol. 8, no. 7. August, 1913. The red plague. Second report. p. 331–430. 8°. **Np.**

The first report was published by the Commonwealth Club as no. 1, of vol. 6 of its Transactions, issued April, 1911. The present report is concerned chiefly with the question of registration and compulsory examination. As San Francisco affords the only American example of the policy under investigation, it is worthy of note that the conclusions of the report are "that registration and compulsory examination fails appreciably to diminish venereal disease."

Social Surveys

COMMONWEALTH CLUB OF CALIFORNIA. Transactions, vol. 8, no. 5. June, 1913. Public recreation. p. 181–309. 8°. **Np.**

On December 11, 1911, the executive committee of the Club authorized a survey of the recreational facilities of California cities, and a section was organized for that purpose. After considering the scope of the inquiry the section was divided into committees to investigate the various forms of public recreation followed on the Pacific Coast. The main work of the section was an intensive study of conditions in San Francisco, as a preliminary inquiry showed that the conditions in that city covered all the recreation problems to be found in all the other cities of the coast. There are special reports on public recreational facilities, on refreshment places, on clubs and settlements, on shows, on motion pictures, on dancehalls and on legislation.

CHICAGO, ILL. Fourth Presbyterian Church. A community survey in the twenty-first ward. 1913. **Cc; Cj; Cm; Cp; Cs; Np.**

Extracted from City Club bulletin, vol. 6, March 13, 1913. p. 86–105. diagrs.

KANSAS CITY, MO. Social prospectus of Kansas City, Mo. Published by the research bureau of the board of public welfare. August, 1913. 104 p. illus. 8°. **Cs; Np.**

The board of public welfare is the local agency for the administration of the charities and corrections of the Kansas City government. The following departments are conducted by the Board: administrative department, research bureau, social service department, recreation department, factory inspection department, legal aid bureau, welfare loan agency, parole department, department for the homeless and unemployed, woman's reformatory, municipal farm, social workers' institute. The report is a detailed survey of the housing conditions, industries, races, recreations and social evil of the city.

Streets

See also "Grade Crossings."

CHICAGO, ILL. City council. Report of the committee on street nomenclature of the city council of the city of Chicago on a general system of street nomenclature. May 1912. 112 p. 8°. **Cm.**

PORTLAND, ORE. Department of public works. Classification of street pavements for purpose of regulating competition in contract work. 1913. **Np.**

Text of the classification is printed in the Municipal Journal of August 14, 1913, p. 218.

UNITED IMPROVEMENT ASSOCIATION. Suggested system of main thoroughfares for the city of Boston. February, 1913. 4 p., 1 map. 8°. **Np.**

Address: 8 Beacon Street, Boston, Mass.

Supplies

BALTIMORE, MD. Bureau of state and municipal supplies. Report no. 5. Institutional supplies. Issued July 21,1913. 63 (1) p. 8°. **Np.**

Taxation

CAMBRIDGE, MASS. Taxpayers' Association. Fourth annual report. June 2, 1913. 26 p. 8°. **Np.**

PHILADELPHIA, PA. Real estate and its taxation in Philadelphia. Questions and answers relating to a proposed system of assessment. Published by the mayor. 1913. 56 p. 8°. **Np.**

Transportation

CHICAGO, ILL. Mayor. Communication of His Honor Mayor Harrison to the city council of the city of Chicago recommending submission of questions of alternative construction of subways to a referendum vote, June 30, 1913, and drafts of ordinances transmitted therewith. Ordinance for down town subways to be leased to elevated railroads; ordinance for a comprehensive independent system of rapid transit subways. Chicago, committee on local transportation. July 15, 1913. 39 p. 8°. **Cp.**

—— Ordinances. Draft of ordinance for the through routing of elevated trains. May 15, 1913. 8 p., map. 8°. **Cm; Cp.**

—— Union Station Company. A statement concerning the terminal plan now under consideration by the committee of the city council on Railway terminals. [n.d.] June 9, 1913(?) 23 p. 8°. **Cc.**

CITY CLUB OF CHICAGO. The railway terminal problem in Chicago. Letters of the directors of the City Club and various civic committees to the city council committee on railway terminals and city council of the city of Chicago. June 23, July 7 and July 14, 1913. p. 215–220. (City Club Bulletin, vol. 6, no. 11, July 23, 1913). **Cc; Cj; Cm; Cp; Cs; Np.**

MANCHESTER, ENGLAND. Manchester corporation tramways. Enquiry into the subject of traffic congestion in the central streets of the city. Interim report of the special subcommittee. January, 1913. 33 p., 18 folding plans. 8°. **Np.**

SIKES, G. C. Recent startling aspects of the Chicago traction question; an address before the City Club. April 25, 1913. 6 p. **Cm; Np.**

Reprinted from the City Club bulletin.

WILCOX, DELOS F. Report on trolley congestion problem and pending terminal franchise proposals in Newark, N. J. **Np.**

An extensive report, as yet printed in full only in the Newark, N. J. *Evening News* of July 7, 8 and 9, 1913.

Water Supply

McLaughlin, Allan J. Sewage pollution of interstate and international waters with special reference to the spread of typhoid fever. vi. The Missouri River from Sioux City to its mouth. Washington, 1913. 84 p. 8°. **Np.**

United States Hygienic Laboratory. Bulletin 89. Study of sanitary conditions in Sioux City, Council Bluffs, Omaha, South Omaha, St. Joseph, Atchison, Leavenworth, Kansas City, Kans., Kansas City, Mo., Lexington, Mo., Boonville, Mo., Jefferson City, Mo., Washington, Mo. and St. Charles, Mo.

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BOOK REVIEWS

Immigration and Labor. By Isaac A. Hourwich. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.50.

The Immigrant Invasion. By Frank Julian Warne. New York: Dodd, Mead and Company. $2.50.

These two books, taken together, furnish a dainty morsel to be rolled under the tongue of the man who loves to say, "You can prove anything by statistics." Here are two men writing on the same subject. Both are men of authority, both are expert statisticians, and both are connected with the census bureau. Both use the statistical method. And they arrive at diametrically opposite conclusions.

Dr. Hourwich's book bears all the marks of having been written for a purpose, that purpose being to discourage the rising sentiment in favor of the restriction of immigration, and to combat any practical measures in that direction. It is, withal, in view of this purpose, a very ingenious, clever and dangerous book. A part of the cleverness is manifested in the expedient of embodying the conclusions which the author wishes to establish in a brief preliminary chapter called a "summary review." The author admits that "such a summary must necessarily be dogmatic in form," but assures the busy reader, for whom it is ostensibly designed, that every proposition here advanced has a demonstration somewhere in the book. Dr. Hourwich can hardly have been unaware of the fact that not one in one hundred of the leisurely readers of his book—not to speak of the busy ones—would take time to analyze carefully the hundreds of pages of closely packed statistical material which follow, to determine whether or not they contain an actual demonstration of the propositions which they are supposed to support. It is a safe assumption that the impressive mass of material—statistical tables, charts, diagrams, and footnotes—will seem to the ordinary reader a sufficient proof of any conclusions which the author wishes to draw from them. It is because this assumption is grounded in human nature that the book is dangerous.

Let us first take the position of the "busy reader" and see what are the conclusions, contained in the summary review, which the author wishes to impress upon the American public, and incidentally seek to determine whether, even in this first chapter, all the statements are thoroughly consistent and trustworthy.

The author asserts first of all that "it is recognized on all sides that the present movement for restriction of immigration has a purely economic object," and that "the advocates of restriction believe that every immigrant admitted to this country takes the place of some American workingman." These statements, which are the author's justification for treating immigration solely on economic grounds, at once challenge denial. One must have read recent periodical literature with a negligent eye, who has not encountered many an argument against unrestricted immigration, based on social and political grounds much broader than the mere competition with the American workman. Thus at the very outset the author's main contention is weakened. On the next page (page 2) the author states that every objection to the new immigration is but an echo of the complaints which were voiced against the German and Irish immigration when it was new. This is again a misleading statement. The argument of economic competition, which Dr. Hourwich regards as the only one now, was a very minor one before 1860. The early objections to immigration were based on wholly different grounds—religious prejudice, and the fear of pauperism, criminality and disease.

On page 3 we find the sweeping statement that "the only real difference between the old immigration and the new is that of numbers." To any one who has given the slightest attention to immigration statistics—as regards illiteracy, permanence of residence, distribution, etc.—no refutation of such a claim is necessary.

The next statement, that immigration follows opportunity for employment in the United States is a commonplace, the truth of which has long been recognized. Some of the deductions which the author makes from it, however, do not necessarily follow. The next point of attack is the popular belief that a large proportion of immigrants are imported by capitalists. This is denied categorically and the author asserts that it would be a waste of money for capitalists to induce immigrants when there are so many thousands coming anyway. The real inducers of immigration are the earlier immigrants. Immigrants come when they are needed on account of a shortage of labor in this country. Yet the author recognizes that there is a seeming inconsistency between a shortage of labor and the existence of a large number of unemployed, which is a familiar feature of our economic situation. This difficulty is settled by the assertion that modern industry demands a certain margin of unemployed labor at all but the most exceptional times, and even then there is likely to be some labor unemployed for seasonal reasons. So that it is not fair to assume that if there were no immigration all this labor would find employment. Still, admits the author, it might be said that restriction of immigration would reduce unemployment. This possibility he proceeds to disprove by a comparison with Australia, where emigration is said to exceed immigration; yet Australia has as much unemployment as New York state, with all its immigrants.

This is an excellent example of one of the authors most grievous faults—that of comparing two regions, or two periods of time, with respect to one particular factor, in total disregard of an indefinite number of other factors which might exist in one and not in the other. Unemployment is a complicated matter, and the author's argument would have weight only in case he could show that every other factor which might affect unemployment differently in one country than in the other had received due consideration. The mere fact that in another country, which in certain respects resembles the United States—and in others differs widely—there may be unemployment without immigration, is absolutely no proof whatever that with less immigration there might be less unemployment here.

The next "widespread belief" considered by Dr. Hourwich is that the new immigration is more inclined than the old to stagnate in the great cities. The truth of this he denies, and asserts that "the immigrants have always preferred to seek employment in the cities." It is undoubtedly true that certain immigrants have always preferred to remain in the cities. Yet the impression, which is apparently meant to be conveyed by this sentence, that there has never been more of a tendency toward the farms on the part of the immigrants than at the present, is a false one. The author himself makes this plain enough in other connections. For instance on pages 15 and 198 (it is expedient at times to depart from the habits of the busy reader) the author states that the Scandivanian immigrants came largely to settle on farms, and on page 191 he speaks of the disappearance of the cheap farm lands in the United States as one of the causes of the decrease in German immigration.

On page 8 the author attributes the movement of native Americans to the cities to the revolution in farming conditions and methods, and the consequent reduction in the demand for farm labor. But on page 36 he says that it is the scarcity of labor on the farms which has retarded the growth of farming.

Other inconsistencies and misleading statements must be passed by hastily to give attention to some of the author's more important arguments. Among these is his curt dismissal of the theory, attributed to General Walker, that immigrants have displaced American population by diminishing the native birth rate. Herein lies one of the most serious and inexcusable weaknesses in Dr. Hourwich's book. The truth or falsity of this theory is absolutely fundamental to any correct understanding of the effects of immigration on labor conditions and industry in the United States, and its importance demands a decidedly more careful and critical consideration than Dr. Hourwich gives it. In his summary review he states that the theory "rests on no other foundation than a computation made in 1815." This is a positive error, for the question has been the subject of a vast amount of careful study since then. And the chapter on race suicide, in which the principal consideration of this theory is included, is wholly inadequate. The diminishing birth rate is pointed out as a world phenomenon, and Australia is again cited (Professor Willcox, by the way, always spells his own name with two "l's"). But there is no attempt to compare the rate of decline in the United States with that in European countries, where it might reasonably be expected to be much more rapid, in the absence of some exceptional factor in the United States. A theory, supported by such names as Commons, Hall, Hunter, Bushee, and Rauschenbusch, and of such vital importance to the author's whole argument, should not have been so summarily dismissed.

To disprove the common argument that immigration has lowered the standard of living of the American workingman, the author goes back to the records of half and three-quarters of a century ago, in the effort to show that the conditions of labor are no worse now than they were then. Having demonstrated, to his own satisfaction at least, that they were not, he thereupon makes the deduction that immigration can not therefore have had a prejudicial effect upon them. This is another of the fundamental logical flaws which run all through the book. The author is constantly making comparisons between the present and the comparatively remote past in the evident belief that if conditions are not actually worse than they were then, or standards lower, there is no ground left for the argument that immigration has injured the workingman. He makes no allowance whatever for the vast improvements in all sorts of workng and living conditions which have characterized all civilized countries in the last three-quarters of a century, and which ought to have been realized more fully in the United States than anywhere else. The truth of the matter is that if there has not been a tremendous improvement in the conditions of labor in the United States since 1840 or 1850, there must have been some powerful retarding factor or factors. And there are many comprehensible reasons for believing that at least immigration may have been one of those factors.

This particular fallacy runs all through the author's discussion of wages. Comparisons of wages over different periods or in different places are constantly made in terms of money, without reference to the relative cost of living. Only once or twice in the whole book does the author give evidence of realizing that real wages and not money wages are the only reasonable basis of comparison. In fact, one of the greatest criticisms of the book is the utter absence of any carefully worked out and plainly stated theory of wages. This is unpardonable in a book which deals primarily with the wages question. Nowhere does the author state definitely what, in his opinion, are the determining causes of high or low wages. The nearest that he comes to it is the statement, once or twice repeated, that the willingness of a man to receive a certain wage has nothing to do with the question, but the amount which he produces (page 367). Yet he repeatedly speaks of the willingness of the rural native American to accept low wages as being a determining factor of his wages, and as constituting him a menace to the urban foreigner (pages 371–2, 492).

Dr. Hourwich's main argument on the wages question is as follows: The immigrants have not supplanted native workmen, but have filled a shortage in the labor market which the native labor could not supply. Immigration varies inversely with unemployment and does not increase unemployment. Without this supply of foreign labor in times of expansion the material development of the country must have been seriously retarded. Since the immigrants merely supply a demand for extra labor, and do not supplant the natives, they can not cause a reduction in the wage scale. In fact, the employment of a large number of immigrants has generally happened simultaneously with an increase in wages. During the period of the new immigration trade unions have flourished and the working day has been shortened.

At this point the author recognizes a certain "theoretical proposition" which must have arisen in the mind of every thoughtful reader who had got this far in the summary review. This is, that if there have been these periods of a shortage of labor when, without the immigrant, industry must have languished, the demand of the employers for more labor must have reacted favorably upon the conditions of the workingman. According to almost any known theory of wages the demand for labor at such a time must of necessity have raised the wages of the laborers already in the country, if the foreign sources of supply had been cut off. But Dr. Hourwich says no, and proceeds to show that in the absence of the immigrant certain substitutes for foreign labor would have been developed, so that the demand for labor would have been satisfied without raising wages. The calm recklessness with which the author thus demolishes his carefully constructed argument that immigration has been necessary for the development of the country is truly amazing. There are indeed substitutes for human labor, which are always potentially available, and will be brought into requisition when labor becomes dearer than society can afford. It is quite probable that if there had been no "new immigration" the United States would have been able to avail itself of these substitutes to such an extent as to provide for a healthy industrial development, though undoubtedly at the cost of a higher wage to the workmen who would necessarily have been employed.

Let us now glance over the main body of the work, picking out only such glaring faults as can be considered in a limited space. The chapter on the report of the immigration commission is evidently intended to discredit the work of that body, and its conclusions. The illustrations selected are for the most part trivial and rather anomalous ones, such as are of necessity included in a work of such scope. Even these are handled in a misleading way, and are not always accurately quoted, as for instance in the last sentence in the footnote on page 60, where "four families" should read "twenty-six" families. Throughout the book the author indulges in many an ironical sneer at the work of the commission. Yet it is noteworthy that he quotes from its report freely and unreservedly whenever it happens to coincide with his own opinions.

The chapter on the old and new immigration is a hopeless muddle on which no time need be wasted. In the chapter on immigration and the labor market the statement is made that "during the industrial crisis of 1908 immigration dropped at once nearly a million" and there was "a net loss of nearly a quarter of a million through emigration." As there is not a semblance of accuracy in this statement if it refers to the fiscal year, we must conclude that the author has in mind the calendar year. Between the calendar years 1907 and 1908 there was a drop in immigration of 859,642 and a net loss through emigration of 41,198. General statements in a statistical volume should come nearer the figures than this.

Dr. Hourwich regards the returning immigrant as a much more potent force in stimulating emigration than "the much blamed steamship agent." He forgets that it is impossible to separate these two classes, as a large proportion of the steamship agents are themselves returned immigrants. In his effort to prove that the popular idea of stimulation is much exaggerated he quotes (page 100) a sentence from the report of the immigration commission to the effect that "there are probably at the present time relatively few actual contract laborers admitted." In fairness, he should have gone on, and quoted the very next sentence, which reads as follows: "There are annually admitted, however, a very large number who come in response to indirect assurance that employment awaits them." And if he had wished to appear wholly unprejudiced, he might have quoted another sentence (on page 189 of the same volume of the report) to the effect that "it is certain that European immigrants, and particularly those from southern and eastern Europe, are, under a literal construction of the law, for the most part contract laborers." These statements come much nearer to representing the general opinion of the commission than the detached sentence quoted by Dr. Hourwich.

In regard to the author's discussion of unemployment, this sweeping criticism may be made. In his entire treatment of this subject, as well as of other allied ones, he assumes that the effect of any phenomenon must be immediately contemporaneous with the cause. If immigration increases unemployment, then the unemployment must be seen to increase at exactly the same time that immigration is increasing. All of his tables and charts are constructed on this assumption. Yet a moment's thought shows that it is absurd. It is common knowledge that immigration increases in periods of business prosperity, when unemployment is naturally on the decrease. The unemployment for which a large wave of immigration is responsible, may not appear until a year or five years after the crest of the wave. If the comparative curves which the author uses to establish his point were shifted forward or back in point of time, they would then appear to prove exactly the reverse of what he wishes. No sensible student claims that when immigrant A arrives in the country he at once throws native B into unemployment, nor that Franceschi and Polenski shove Bauer and Svenson bodily out of their jobs.

The chapter on racial stratification is vitiated by the fact that the figures are confined almost wholly to the decade 1890 to 1900 which was a period of exceptionally small immigration and numerous departures. In the chapter on emigration from northern and western Europe a very significant statement occurs, viz., "The increased demand for labor in the industrial establishments of Germany resulted in a substantial increase of the rate of wages." The same idea is brought out in the discussion of the other northwestern European countries, where it is shown that the industrial expansion has resulted in a great improvement in the situation of the laboring classes. The author fails to show why similar conditions should not have accomplished a similar result in the United States, in the absence of an unlimited immigration.

In his discussion of the standard of living and wages, the chief weakness of the argument has already been suggested, viz., that the author continually compares conditions now with what they were half and three-quarters of a century ago, making no allowance for the tremendous advances in sanitation, social legislation, and public opinion, which ought to have set the workman of today immeasurably ahead of his grandfather in everything that pertains to the comfort of life. The decrease in the hours of labor is called "the effect of the 'new immigration'" (page 313), quite ignoring the fact that England, with more emigration than immigration, has witnessed an even more significant reduction in hours. In fact, the author's method of comparing conditions in the United States with those in foreign countries would be disastrous to several of his arguments, if consistently carried out.

Perhaps the worst positive statistical blunder in the book is that connected with the comparison of the tendency of native parents and foreign parents to put their children to work. The number of children of each nativity at work is compared with the number of all breadwinners of the same nativity in manufacturing and mechanical pursuits. Now, obviously, the only reasonable basis of comparison is the total number of children of the given ages in each nativity group in the country. If the author had made this comparison (as he might readily have done from the same source from which he drew his figures) it would have appeared that nearly three times as large a percentage of all children of foreign parents, of the given ages, are employed in the specified occupations, as children of native parents. One is in doubt whether it is more charitable to assign such a perversion of statistics on the part of a writer of Dr. Hourwich's ability to carelessness or to intent to mislead.

In the midst of his discussions of economic problems the author inserts a very cursory chapter on pauperism and crime. The summary treatment of crime finds its justification in the fact that the author has published an essay on the subject, in which he arrives at the conclusion, which corresponds with that reached by many other investigators, that immigration has not increased the volume of crime in this country. As regards pauperism, no similar grounds for so inadequate a treatment are evident. The only reason which suggests itself is that even so clever a statistician as Dr. Hourwich would have difficulty in finding statistics which would not go to show that the amount of pauperism among the foreign-born was vastly out of proportion to their total numbers in the population.

It is not necessary to continue this discussion into the consideration of various separate industries which closes Dr. Hourwich's book. Enough has been said to demonstrate the fundamental weaknesses of the work. In addition to many actual statistical inaccuracies and careless practices (such as referring to a period of years sometimes with the inclusion of the first year and sometimes without it—as, the ten-year period 1900–1909 or 1899–1909) the following general faults run through the book: (1) Arguing from concomitants—because two things have happened simultaneously, therefore one is the cause of the other, or the other is the cause of the one, if that suits one's purposes better. (2) The comparison of a certain phenomenon between different times or places with reference to a single conditioning factor, without consideration of numerous other factors which might also influence it (unemployment in Australia without immigration and in the United States with immigration). (3) The assumption that an effect must appear simultaneously with its cause. (4) The neglect of the important question of the influence of immigration on the birth rate of a society. (5) The treatment of the remuneration of labor on the basis of money wages, instead of real wages. (6) The confusion of labor with cheap labor. (7) The assumption that labor-saving machinery supplants skilled labor to a much greater extent than unskilled labor. (8) The failure to allow for any natural progress in the condition of the American workingman in the last three-quarters of a century. (9) Finally—the besetting sin of the professional statistician—the assumption that nothing is true which cannot be proved by statistics.

Less space need be devoted to Dr. Warne's book, not because it is less important, but because it contains less to challenge criticism—and of course the reviewer finds himself in a more expansive mood when finding fault than when meting out praise.

In the first chapter the author carries out the comparison suggested in the title between the immigration of the present and the great invasions of history. This is skilfully done, and while one might take exception to the use of the word invasion in such a broad sense, and to the attitude of hostility on the part of the author which it implies, nevertheless the query which is raised, as to whether America alone can hope to escape the consequences of such a movement, is very pertinent.

In his discussion of the causes of immigration, Dr. Warne does well to lay stress on the question of land, and density of population, for immigration in a very real sense represents the redistribution of population consequent upon the discovery of America. His view of induced immigration and contract labor is directly opposed to that of Dr. Hourwich, as Dr. Warne regards them both as of great importance. The now familiar change in the racial character of immigration is thoroughly discussed, and well portrayed by the use of tables and charts.

The chapters on distribution are among the best in the book. It is clearly demonstrated that the predominance of the older immigrants in the agricultural regions of the west and northwest, and the concentration of the newer immigration in the north Atlantic states are the result of the economic conditions of two different periods of development rather than of different racial traits on the part of certain groups of immigrants. The primary cause of the small immigration to the south is found in the institution of slavery.

As a preparation for the study of the effects of immigration upon conditions in the United States, the author considers at some length the customary standard of living of the different immigrant races in their native European homes, and finds that not only are the standards of immigrants in general lower than those of Americans, but that the standards of the newer races are decidedly lower than those of the older ones. These standards the immigrants bring with them.

As a result, there arises that disastrous competitive struggle between different standards of living, which Dr. Warne has clearly depicted in his earlier book, *The Slav Invasion.* The outcome of the struggle is the stagnation of the standard of the natives and of the older immigrants at a point far below that which they might have reached by this time, and in some cases an actual lowering of that standard in the effort to hold out against the new immigrants.

What is true of the standard of living is of course true of the wages upon which it depends, and here we find the most striking and significant conflict of opinion between these two authors. In practically everything which concerns the welfare of the American workingman, Dr. Warne finds that the influence of the new immigration has been disastrous, while Dr. Hourwich fails to see that any harm whatever has been done. Of the two, Dr. Warne's method of treatment and conclusions make a much stronger appeal to the reader, and seem to rest on a saner and sounder logic. He does admit that without immigration the industrial development of the country might have been less rapid, but considers that this might have been a good thing.

In his discussion of the future and of the responsibility of the United States, the author is at his best. His appeal is to the common sense of the nation, and to a broader human sympathy and sense of stewardship. His words challenge the thought of every citizen of this country who feels motives above mere money-getting and selfish personal advancement, and demand the consideration of the menace of unregulated immigration before it is too late.

Certain minor criticisms of this book should be made in the interests of completeness. The long lists of proper names of races and places which occur from time to time give an impression of padding, which the body of the work does not warrant. The illustrations are somewhat monotonous, and the quotations from a few authors, as for instance Mr. Bryce and Mr. Wells, are perhaps too voluminous. On page 117 the author must have meant to say that more than one-third, instead of one-half, of the population was living in cities; and the present head tax is $4 instead of $2 as stated on page 309. Taken as a whole, however, this book gives evidence of a really remarkable penetration and insight into the more fundamental and significant, though less obvious, aspects of the immigration situation in this country.

The effect of immigration upon wages and the conditions of labor in the United States can never be proved by statistics. Probably it can never be proved at all. Statistics are good, and furnish valuable bulwarks to arguments pro and con. But after all the figures are tabulated, and all the charts and diagrams drawn, and all the curves plotted, it still remains true that one cannot write Q. E. D. at the end. It is significant that of these two authors the one who relies less on statistics, and more on logic, observation and common sense, comes much nearer to proving his point.

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New Demands in Education. By James Phinney Munroe. New York: Doubleday Page and Company, 1912.

One of the most significant things about this book is the indication it contains that the leaders in business and industry and the leaders in education are arriving at a common understanding of the real meaning of education. The book will serve a useful purpose by giving to some of the recent tendencies in education the support of the "practical" thought of a layman in the business world. If the "new demands in education," now recognized by the more advanced industrial and educational leaders, are to be met, it will require the closest coöperation between the two groups, and a book of this kind should do much to give currency to the best thought in education, which is too exclusively confined to professional educational discussion.

The fundamental demand in education, the author repeatedly emphasizes, is for individual efficiency—physical, mental and moral—as a means to social or civic efficiency. In his preface he enumerates eight new demands, and "upon these theses the arguments of the following chapters rest." The first demand is for greater attention to the individual child through smaller classes; the second, greater attention to the physical well being of the child; third, greater educative exercise for the mind by establishing a clearer relation between the work of the school and real life; fourth, better training of the senses—the powers of observation and ability to use the hands; fifth, that education shall put its chief emphasis upon character; sixth, that the main emphasis of schooling shall be placed on the social side—effective living as a member of the community; seventh, that there shall be some one to advise the boy "what to do next" when he reaches the age when he may legally leave school; and finally, that, from the age when he may legally leave school up to manhood and womanhood, there shall be "a wide variety of opportunity for making himself (or herself) into the most intelligent, the most efficient, and therefore the happiest citizen that it is possible for him to be."

The vocational idea runs strongly through the book, but not in a narrow sense. Efficient citizenship is constantly kept in the foreground as the chief and all-inclusive vocation. Some of the more significant chapters are those dealing with the grievance of the average boy against the average school; the common school; education as prevention; the demand for efficient administration; the demand for a true profession of teaching; the demand for vocational training; the pressing need for industrial education; the demands of business; the need for real patriotism; the demand for trained citizens; the demand for a citizens' high school; how the colleges ruin the high schools; the educational bearings of manual training.

The author declares that we need "educational engineers," and forecasting the main recommendations of such engineers, he says they would certainly include:

> Much larger school appropriations, together with better systems of business managment.
>
> Much smaller classes (not to exceed twenty-five);
>
> Higher salaries to competent teachers;
>
> Better training for teachers;
>
> A reorganization of most normal schools in order to bring about that better training;
>
> The organization of the teaching profession (like that of law, of medicine, and of engineering) for the purpose of promoting higher professional standards;
>
> Limitation of the authority of school boards to matters non-educational;
>
> Establishing of school "faculties" with authority, under the superintendent, over all educational questions;
>
> Development of a rational and diversified school program to meet the life-need of the average pupil, not the artificial examination standards of the colleges;
>
> School buildings simply planned and furnished, but properly ventilated, heated, and lighted;
>
> Ample provision for physical training and for health teaching;
>
> Education of each child as an individual, with due regard to his present aptitudes and future prospects;
>
> "Social education"—that is, the training of the child to live usefully and happily with and for his fellows; and
>
> Wise development of manual and industrial education, leading to vocational training.

These forecasted recommendations have recently been substantiated, in large measure, by the actual recommendations of the "educational engineers" who have made the inquiry into the school system of New York City. The following passages from *New Demands in Education* might almost be duplicated in the report on the New York school inquiry:[1]

> We must, however, do away with the curse of uniformity, allowing instead, full play to individuality; we must, furthermore, fit the means and methods

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[1] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. II, p. 88.

of the school to the real needs of the future worker and citizen; and we must, in addition, make the profession of teaching self-respecting by releasing it from its present bondage to amateurs: to well-intentioned but inexpert school boards who are jauntily settling pedagogical problems that appall trained experts. The teachers, if they are to teach from themselves instead of from prescribed text-books, must have a larger share in the control and development of schools, and must be so trained and stimulated as to be fit to assume that larger share.

A school board constituted as are those in most of the cities of the United States is an anachronism in these days of sociological knowledge and of business organization.

A school board should then be chosen largely for its administrative fitness entirely without regard to its political affiliations; should be small, so that its plain and comparatively simple duties of legislation may always be carried on in open daylight, in committee of the whole; should be fairly permanent so that it may pursue a steady policy; should be dignified and not harassed by trivialities, so that men of the highest ability may not shrink from service upon it; should be chosen not so much for what its members know (or think they know) about education, still less for any deep familiarity with city politics, but because they are persons of good judgment, of wide knowledge of affairs, of deep interest in the city's welfare, and of incorruptible integrity . . . . . This committee (board) in turn should place all administrative and executive duties connected with public education in the hands of experts directly responsible to it.

Upon the superintendent, thus freed of all business detail, should rest entire responsibility for the educational efficiency of the schools, including the appointment and dismissal of teachers, and the determination of courses of study. Such a superintendent must be an expert in the science and art of education, must be a man of broad culture and wide views of life, must be a person of boundless zeal, ready tact and unflinching moral courage. Moreover he should have powers as nearly autocratic as it is wise to give where abuse would entail far-spreading mischief; should be assured of tenure of office during good service; should have an active part, though not a vote, in all meetings of the school board; and should have supreme control of and final responsibility for all disciplinary measures, including the important educational question of truancy.

There should be . . . . a school faculty, similar to a college faculty, wherein courses of study, methods of teaching, text-books, and the thousand questions of pedagogics should have free discussion; wherein every new idea should have encouragement; wherein all fair criticism of methods or books should have respectful hearing.

Arthur W. Dunn.

New York.

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Sources of Municipal Revenue in Illinois. By Lent Dayton Upson, Ph.D. University of Illinois Studies in the Social Sciences. Urbana-Champaign, Ill.: Published by the University, pp. 126. 75 cents.

This study has a significance not only for the information which it contains as a presentation of certain interesting data and conclusions of importance in their local application to the particular communities of which it treats, but in its broader aspects as suggestive of a great and heretofore untouched field of opportunity for similar monographic treatment by advanced students and scholars of our universities.

The impetus which has been given by such organizations as the National Municipal League and the United States bureau of the census in the last fifteen or twenty years to the consideration of problems of municipal government, it would be difficult to exaggerate; yet it is a somewhat curious fact that this movement has reacted chiefly upon the states in the form of various legislative enactments intended to bring about a more scientific reporting of the financial transactions of cities, towns, and other minor political subdivisions, while societies and the curricula of universities, whose object has been the study of political science or original research in this broad field of inquiry, appear to have confined their activities almost solely to that branch of the subject which relates primarily to the structure and organization of government. Very little attention has been given to the equally important—some of us think the more important—aspect of the problem as to how best to secure an efficient administration of municipal affairs which is involved in the accurate reporting of properly classified fundamental data, and an administration of municipal functions, under whatever form of government, based upon an intelligent use of known facts. This is not to say that the numerous devices for nominating and electing and controlling our public officers, of initiating legislation and of the administration of municipal affairs by commissions, may not represent wise and salutary reforms; only, let us not deceive ourselves by thinking that once we have adopted these things, our municipal soul is thereby to be automatically saved, for we shall need then, quite as much as now, certain measuring rods of efficiency with which to check up the system, as well as keep tabs on individual conduct.

It is no doubt true that the real reason we have had so few students of municipal government from the fundamental viewpoint of financial administration is not the lack of appreciation of the importance of the subject, but the utterly forbidding and discouraging character of the material with which students have been confronted whenever they have set to work upon original sources. Dr. Upson's monograph is not only a substantial contribution to the literature of the subject, but it is a tribute to his courage and perseverance, and a concrete demonstration of a fact, that many seekers after truth in this field of inquiry will never learn save by toilsome experience—namely, that official documents and the bald statement of financial officers cannot be accepted at face value. "Questionnaires," he says, "were sent to municipal officers; annual reports were received from nearly (*sic*) half of the cities; and personal visits were made to all but two. . . . . No one of these methods of inquiry proved entirely satisfactory. It was difficult to secure replies even to direct questions. No printed report gave a complete report for a single city. In the cities visited the data had to be secured from a number of officials." "Nevertheless, a complete statement was secured from all but three of the cities examined," says the author who has analyzed his material in a manner enabling him to classify the several sources of revenue and treat each topically under its own heading, *e.g.*, property taxation; licenses and police fines; gifts, grants, and subventions; revenue from services rendered, and from municipal industries and property.

These chapters are supplemented by a brief discussion of loans, by numerous statistical tables, and by a bibliography. The final chapter summarizes in excellent form the author's definite conclusions, twenty in number, most of which have a purely local application, though some of them reflect conditions undoubtedly prevailing in other states. Such studies may be expected to increase in number, scope, and intrinsic worth when we have more and better compilations of original data relating to municipal finance upon which such men as Dr. Upson may draw for reliable and suggestive material.

Charles F. Gettemy.[1]

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Helping School Children: Suggestions for Efficient Coöperation with the Public Schools. By Elsa Denison. New York: Harper and Brothers, pp. 351, $1.40.

The sub-title of this book fairly suggests the scope of the work, and no one can read it without feeling that "its message and its facts are needed wherever there is a public school or a civic organization." Based upon an extensive investigation in all parts of the country and upon "contributions from 350 city and state superintendents of public instruction and 650 business men, club women, physicians, dentists, ministers and editors," besides statistics from various bureaus of research, the suggestions made and conclusions reached should commend themselves to all interested in the public schools and in general government efficiency.

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[1] Boston.

In general it may be said that the work shows what is being done, and what can and should be done, in the way of coöperation, to make the public schools more effective; and the subject is treated from every point of contact and viewed from every angle. In spite of the fact that perhaps $10,000,000 are being spent annually by public and private agencies to supplement the work of public schools in the United States, which is more than the income from the Rockefeller and Carnegie foundations combined, yet the writer feels that the present activities do not meet the needs of the public schools, and the general apathy and lack of interest still presents a problem which is far from solved and in which, in many instances, but a poor beginning has been made—and indeed in thousands of instances not even a visible sign of a beginning. The solution of the public school problem, therefore, lies in effective outside coöperation, and this can only be brought about by a general awakening of the public conscience and applying the remedies already worked out in the more favored localities to the unenlightened communities. This can best be accomplished by central organizations which shall act as distributing agencies of information necessary to raise the general level of efficiency. But of course the real problem is essentially a local one and local interest must awake to meet the situation. This interest moreover must come from voluntary organizations and associations. Officials will be stimulated to do their full duty, school budgets will be increased to meet the proper needs, and an effective teaching staff will be secured only when the public has an honest—which is an intelligent—enthusiasm for the public schools.

With the general suggestions outlined in this work, the majority of students of social reform will agree. Efficiency in school administration as in other lines of government will only come when a vital contact between the agents of the people and the people themselves is effected, and this can only be brought about by voluntary action from the latter. This fact has been demonstrated by such organizations as the National Municipal League and the various municipal voters leagues. These organizations have done much to stimulate an honest and intelligent interest in politics and there is reason to believe that the various voluntary associations suggested here would do the same for the public schools. But they must be organized and unified under a more intelligent administration than is often the case at the present time. Minor criticisms may be urged against this volume. The facts are not always arrayed in the most logical manner and a certain carelessness and looseness of expression fails to drive home the conviction which the facts would really justify. Quotations are often made with no indication of the source, and frequent references to unfamiliar cities are made with no hint as to the name of the state in which they are located. There are numerous typographical errors—too numerous in fact to be pointed out—which perhaps may also account, in part at least, for the faulty punctuation frequently met with. But on the whole the work is a contribution to a much neglected field of civic life.

Karl F. Geiser.

Oberlin College.

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The Conservation of the Child. By Arthur Holmes, Assistant Director of the Psychological Clinic, University of Pennsylvania. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott and Company, $1.25.

How to tell when children are mentally, morally or physically defective; how to classify each child so as to secure for him the best individual care; how to conduct a psychological clinic in close coöperation with schools, charitable societies, hospitals and universities; how to give physical, pedagogical and psychophysical tests and interpret their results—all this is told with a wealth of case detail in the *Conservation of the Child.*

Dr. Holmes' description of the routine procedure of the clinic, of what its physicians, psychologists and social workers do every day, his full presentation of Binet, laboratory and school book tests, and his historical summaries of interest in feeble-minded children, are primarily of value to the physician, psychologist and teacher of atypical children. For all teachers of normal children, for parents and social workers, the book includes many sign posts and danger warnings among its analyses of early symptoms of feeble-mindedness, and its constant references to the school problems of retardation and over-age.

Every city is in the midst of or must eventually go through the experience of coördinating the agencies, public and private, that are in touch with mentally abnormal children. Dr. Holmes has outlined a system of coöperation between these forces in Philadelphia through the clinic which aims to be a "a helpful coordinating, correlative agency among all societies and organizations aiming at the welfare of children."

Every one of the four thousand children brought to the clinic since 1896 received a thorough physical examination, and if adenoids or decayed teeth seemed the possible cause of backwardness or badness, these defects were remedied before the mental tests were made.

When a child is classified as corrigible or incorrigible and its treatment outlined by the examiner, he is not sent back to home and school to get along as best he can, but the necessary watching and special instruction are given either at the clinics' hospital school, in the child's home or in some institution. Each child receives the continuing service of a specially trained social worker, a friend till the last, which means permanent commitment to an institution, or maximum development of his powers.

For its record of a smoothly running organization, unique in this country, as well as for its suggestions to other cities, and to all people caring for feeble-minded children, the *Conservation of the Child* will be of lasting service.

William H. Allen.

New York City.

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Flies and Mosquitoes as Carriers of Disease. By William Paul Gerhard, C.E. New York. Published by the author, Forty-second Street Building, 25 cents.

Dr. Gerhard is a well-known writer on public sanitation, and his works are usually full of valuable information. The pamphlet in question, including some 16 pages of text, bears inside as an apparent sub-title, "What farmers can do to assist in the campaign against flies and mosquitoes," and the paper is as a whole a reprint of an article written for *The Country Gentleman* several years ago.

Dr. Gerhard brings together a brief and rather capable summary of the fly-fighting methods and the mosquito extermination practices so far developed and published. The pamphlet, as far as it goes, presents, therefore, important matter which it is well to have widely circulated.

Regret is felt, however, that Dr. Gerhard has not said anything new, and that in common with others who are dealing with the subject of fly-fighting particularly, he has "side-stepped" the suggestion of any practicable methods whereby the farmer may prevent the breeding of flies without destroying the value of horse manure. It is well enough of course, to suggest that horse manure should be promptly removed from city stables, or that it should be so treated as to prevent the breeding of flies. It is, however, futile to propose to the farmer that he should use chemicals which would destroy the manurial value of that which has much to do with his prosperity as a farmer.

The same lack of concrete investigation upon a subject relating to life and economics most importantly is found in the publications of the Agricultural Department at Washington, and also in the authoritative work of Dr. L. O. Howard upon this subject.

Dr. Gerhard's pamphlet gives excellent suggetions as to how proper sanitation about the farm home will reduce the number of flies and mosquitoes, which may be carriers of disease, and are certainly productive of annoyance. It is to be hoped that some scientific investigator will appreciate the importance of carrying on experimentation in such fashion as to be able to propose to farmers a method of handling horse manuso as to prevent the breeding therein of flies without the destruction in consequence of the value of the manure.

J. Horace McFarland.

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Foxy Government, or Fallacies of the Des Moines Plan. By P. H. Ryan. Published by the author, February 1912.

This is a title which commands attention, especially from students, debaters and librarians who have long looked in vain for "something on the other side." Such searchers will be disappointed, however, in this slender volume, for it constitutes the sort of opposition which the friends of the Des Moines plan should welcome with shouts of joy.

It is a gale of ill-tempered declamation assailing the theory of the commission plan and sneering at the enthusiam of its supporters in Des Moines. The opening sections are devoted respectively to Adam, Abraham ("When Abraham tried the Commission Plan") Romulus and Remus, Alexander and Napoleon, all of whom, it seems, did much damage in their days by setting up new fool forms of government.

Among the gems (Come now, C. R. W.—stay that blue pencil! I know the screed is not worth our space but we have to have a *little* fun in this magazine!) among the gems that shine from the pages are the following:

> Ward representation is eliminated, destroying a representative form of government.
>
> The United States is the only republic existing for a greater length of time than any other.
>
> Rotation in office is the one great check against trickery and crookedness.

As to initiative, referendum and recall:

> Such a system causes turmoil, unrest and produces a virulent form of anarchism.
>
> The only ones desiring it (commission government, in other cities) are a clique of muckrakers.

As proof of a nation-wide "conspiracy" to spread the commission plan, the author cites the existence of municipal leagues in New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania and other states, "the leaders of which have no other motive than mercenary."

As to the reason why the number of commissioners was set at five:

> If the ball of the thumb is adjusted in proper juxtaposition with the apex of the nose, the fingers apart, extended in the direction of Hawaii, and wigwagged at the other fellow in a contemptuous manner, an insinuation of disdain is implied that may have been the inspiration that led to the selection of a quintette as the most feasible galaxy of units.

Not everything that the author presents is false or frivolous. There are fallacies in the commission plan, there are defects in the details of the Des Moines charter and the commissioners have been human enough to err from time to time, but this glib critic is too poorly grounded in political science and too biased to be either an acceptable collector or interpreter of the facts.

Richard S. Childs.

New York.

Coöperation in New England. By James Ford. New York: Survey Associates, Inc., pp. 300. $1.50.

In no other part of the United States has the coöperative movement received so much attention from economic students as in New England. In 1877 George E. McNeil made an elaborate study of the history of coöperation in New England for the Massachusetts bureau of labor statistics; in 1886, Dr. E. W. Bemis published his well-known *Coöperation in New England,* and now after a lapse of nearly thirty years Dr. James Ford presents a new survey of the same field. We have thus a unique succession of inventories of the coöperative movement. The chief interest in Dr. Ford's book to most students, therefore, will not lie so much in its faithful delineation of existing coöperative enterprises, as in the light it throws on the progress of coöperation in New England.

In 1886 Bemis found 17 coöperative manufacturing enterprises in New England, in 1913 Ford found not a single factory managed on genuine coöperative principles. The total collapse of productive coöperation is not so surprising however, as the decline in distributive coöperation. Coöperation in production has been declining elsewhere, but in practically all other industrial countries distributive coöperation has been extending. In 1886 Bemis found 53 coöperative stores with a paid-up capital of $187,466 and doing an annual business of $2,000,000. Of these about a dozen survive with a capital of $90,000. There are altogether, according to Ford's reckoning, some 60 coöperative urban stores in New England, but practically all of the stores established since 1886 have been established by immigrants directly in imitation of the coöperative stores of their native countries. It remains to be seen whether these stores will survive the Americanization of their clientele.

The results of rural coöperation have not been much more encouraging. The chief enterprises of this character found by Bemis in 1886 were the coöperative creameries and here again Dr. Ford finds since 1890 a considerable decline. The one form of distributive coöperation which shows substantial progress is the association for the coöperative sale of produce, typified by the very successful New England Cranberry Sales Company.

Naturally, Dr. Ford devotes much of his attention to the causes of failure. The decline of the coöperative creameries can be explained by special causes. But there are evidently more general causes for the backwardness of the American coöperative movement. Dealing more generally with the question, Dr. Ford ascribes the failure of distributive coöperation largely to the fact that the American prefers to increase his earning power rather than to exercise thrift. But things are changing, he thinks, and in no great while the American workman too will have to become thrifty. It is possible that this is the true explanation, but we should have liked to hear something as to the other possible explanation—the greater relative efficiency of American private distributive agencies over similar agencies in other countries. It may be that the American workman finds that the coöperative game is not worth the candle, not because he esteems candles less than the workmen of other countries, but because there is less candle here.

George E. Barnett.
Johns Hopkins University.

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Between Eras from Capitalism to Democracy. By Albion W. Small. Kansas City, Mo.: Inter-Collegiate Press. 431 pp.

Professor Small's book is a singular combination of conversations, discussions, and moralizings (touched throughout with a decided human interest) in which the nature and evils of the capitalist system are laid bare and a remedy sought by practical men of affairs under the guidance of philosophers and friends.

It would be difficult to find anywhere a more acute analysis of modern industrialism or a surer statement of changed views which are coming to thoughtful men and women all over the world as they contemplate the havoc which has followed in the train of uncontrolled competition—that "natural order" so blessed in the eyes of Manchester. The volume also presents a remarkable picture of all sorts and conditions of men and women, theorists and tough minded persons, who are seriously devoting themselves to "the problems of the hour," much to the displeasure and high contempt of the Philistine. Captains of industry, striking workmen, politicians, socialistic preachers, despised sociologists, insurgents, and professors have their say, as the author exposes the inner workings of a great industrial enterprise under the leadership of resourceful capitalists. The goal to which it all runs is a sort of copartnership with labor a little higher in the scale than in any such undertakings which have been realized so far. It may be a forlorn hope to which our author leads us. Such it will seem to be to those who have seen at close range the sickly plant of copartnership which has languished for half a century in the midst of British capitalism. But whatever may be thought of the outcome of the story which Mr. Small here tells, all will admit that he has made impressive portrayal of many aspects of the modern industrial conflict.

Charles A. Beard.

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Essays in Taxation. By Edwin R. A. Seligman. Eighth edition, completely revised and enlarged. New York: Macmillan Company, 1913. 707 pp. $4 net.

Professor Seligman's collected *Essays in Taxation* first appeared in 1895 and has gone through seven editions without material change. The present eighth edition has however been thoroughly revised, being expanded from thirteen to twenty-one chapters and from 434 to 707 pages. The revision has extended to practically every chapter, while notable additions are found in the chapters on the general property tax, the single tax, the inheritance tax, corporation taxation, and recent literature in taxation. The eight new chapters, which are mostly based on papers and addresses published elsewhere in the interval, cover modern problems in taxation, a quarter century's progress in taxation, separation of state and local revenues, relations of state and federal finance, the importance of precision in assessments, recent reforms in taxation (1909–1910), and American reports on taxation, 1901–1911. Last but by no means least in importance is the enlargement of the index from ten to twenty-five pages.

The work has been a recognized authority for so long that any review at this date, beyond an indication of the extent of the changes, appears superfluous. It has in fact been one of the chief influences making for a sane and orderly progress in taxation. This influence will be strengthened by the appearance of the revised edition, which is of course indispensable to all serious students of taxation.

Edward Van Dyke Robinson.
University of Minnesota.

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The New American Citizen: A Reader for Foreigners. By Frances S. Mintz. New York: The Macmillan Company, pp. 206. 50 cents.

This little volume contains topics of interest to foreigners, such as the story of the discovery and settlement of their adopted country, short biographical sketches of national heroes like Washington and Lincoln, national hymns, a brief outline of our governmental system, pen-pictures of our great cities, interesting stories from the lives of our famous poets and prose-writers, with selections from their writings, and stories of modern inventions and occupations. Instruction in personal hygiene is made the basis of several lessons.

Unfortunately some of these topics extend a little too far beyond the average foreigner's educational background, and do not give him that intimate knowledge he needs of the life and activities that immediately surround him.

The book best meets the needs of those who have gained some proficiency in the English language and have acquired a rather extensive vocabulary. But on the other hand, the book will help displace the uninteresting and juvenile "I see a cat" reader for foreigners, and will command the interest of adult pupils of all nationalities through the knowledge it will impart of their new home-country and the appeal it will make to civic pride and patriotism.

In short, the *Reader* will serve fairly well as a short step to the history of American literature and institutions, and to an understanding of the duties and privileges of American citizenship.

John J. Maioriello.
Social Service Settlement, Philadelphia.

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The Courts, the Constitution and Parties. By Prof. Andrew C. McLaughlin. Chicago: The University of Chicago. Postpaid $1.63.

Professor McLaughlin has gathered into a convenient sized volume five of his fugitive studies in constitutional history and politics. The one of greatest interest to the readers of the National Municipal Review is that on political parties and popular government. Another on the significance of political parties is also most interesting. In Dr. McLaughlin's opinion "the object of the party government is not to seek the will of the people and by diligent obedience do what the people may wish; it is not . . . . to give free play to local whims and fancies."

The book would have been much more helpful and suggestive if the several integral chapters had been revised and brought up to date. To illustrate: The chapter on the political significance of parties was written in 1908. At that date it was perhaps entirely proper to speak of Democratic success as a "humorous suggestion" and to say "some time we shall democratize and constitutionalize parties," a process which had proceeded far in 1912, and still further in 1913.

Notwithstanding the fact that the volume fails to recognize the truly remarkable developments of the past five years, it is one well worth attention even though written from the standpoint of the historian, rather than that of the political scientist.

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Organized Democracy: An Introduction to American Politics. By Frederick A. Cleveland, Ph.D., LL.D. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, pp. 479.

Dr. Cleveland has provided a good, working handbook of the development of popular sovereignty in the United States. The picture drawn is one "of the continuing evolution of the means devised by organized citizenship for making its will effective; for determining what the government shall be and what the government shall do; for making the qualified voter an efficient instrument through which the will of the people may be expressed; for making officers both responsive and responsible. With that wealth of detail which characterizes Dr. Cleveland's work, we have a volume which while paralleling others in places, gives within its pages a good perspective of a complicated process. It is to be regretted that so much of the scaffolding in the shape of references and over-elaborate footnotes has been permitted to remain.

The book is one of the American Citizens Series, edited by Prof. Albert

Bushnell Hart, and owes its origin to the author's essay on "The Growth of Democracy in the United States."

⁂

The American Spirit. By Oscar S. Straus. New York: The Century Company. $2.12 postpaid.

Twenty-two essays dealing with those subjects in which Mr. Straus has been most interested and those men with whom he has been associated, are included in this volume. There is no effort to give it continuity, but running through all the chapters is a note of sincere patriotism, real devotion to country and a desire to set forth his idea of personal and social service.

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London and Its Government. By Percy A. Harris. London: J. M. Dent and Sons, Ltd., pp. 188. 2 s. 6 d. net.

This is a concise and satisfactory acccount of a big subject. In less than 200 pages we have an epitome of the government of the British metropolis. As a member of the London county council, Mr. Harris speaks with authority and yet he does not overlay his treatment with unnecessary expert details. Moreover the book is illustrated in a way to illuminate the text. The concluding chapters on the relation of the state to London and on London reform are admirable alike in their perspective and in their spirit. In the words of the London Municipal Journal, Mr. Harris's digest is so well done, and it reads so easily, that only the expert in London's government can appreciate the labour that must have been entailed in elimination and compression.

⁂

British Social Politics. By Carlton Hayes, Boston: Ginn and Company. Pp. 58. $1.75.

This is a source book on the following topics: workmen's compensation, child welfare, tradesunionism, old age pension, the unemployed, sweated labor, the housing and land problem, the Lloyd-George budget, curbing the Lords and national insurance. The British acts on each subject are described, the history of their passage set forth and the leading speeches dealing with them are summarized clearly and fairly. The editor who is an assistant professor of history at Columbia contributes an interesting introductory note.

BOOKS RECEIVED

Addresses and Proceedings of the Fourth National Conservation Congress. Indianapolis: October 1–4, 1912.

Bibliography of Smoke and Smoke Prevention. Compiled by Ellwood H. McClelland, Technology Librarian, Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh. Pittsburgh, Pa.: University of Pittsburgh, 1913.

The Commission Plan. By George F. Rudisill. Columbus, Ohio: The Federal Printing Company, 1913. 25 cents.

European Cities at Work. By Frederic C. Howe, Ph. D. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.75.

The Government of American Trade Unions. By Theodore W. Glocker, Ph.D. Baltimore, Md.: The Johns Hopkins Press. $1.00.

The New Unionism. By Andre Tridon. New York: B. W. Huebsch. 25 cents. Cloth, $1.00.

Official South African Municipal Year Book. 1913. Joint Editors: W. P. M. Henderson, Francis G. Pay. Published by Francis G. Pay, P. O. Box 1136, Cape Town. 10/6.

Organization and Administration of the Department of Health of Dayton, Ohio. Report prepared for the Department of Health by the Dayton

Bureau of Municipal Research, July, 1913.

Our City Civilization. By Henry Rawie. Baltimore: Williams and Wilkins Company. $1.00.

Privileges and Immunities of Citizens of the United States. By Arnold Johnson Lien, Ph.D. New York: Longmans, Green and Company. 1913.

Second National Conference of Catholic Charities. 1912. Washington, D. C.: Catholic University of America.

Safety Methods for Preventing Occupational and Other Accidents and Diseases. By William H. Tolman and Leonard B. Kendall. New York: Harper and Brothers. $3.00.

Water Works of Canada. Compiled by Leo G. Denis. Published by the Commission of Conservation, Canada. Ottawa: The Mortimer Company.

William H. Baldwin Prize

HERETOFORE the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL LEAGUE has established an annual prize of One Hundred Dollars called the *William H. Baldwin Prize*, to be given to the author of the best essay on a subject connected with municipal government. For the year 1913-1914, a prize of $100 will be offered to:

> Undergraduate students registered in a regular course in any college or university in the United States offering direct instruction in municipal government.

The prize will be awarded by judges selected by the Executive Committee of the League, and the names of the winners will be announced at the next following annual meeting.

The Council of the League has selected as the topic for next year's competition the subject of

"*Is the Commission Form of Government a Permanent One*"

The essays must not exceed 10 000 words, and must be *typewritten in duplicate*, and both copies mailed or delivered to an express company not later than March 15th, 1914, addressed to CLINTON ROGERS WOODRUFF, Secretary of the National Municipal League, North American Building, Philadelphia, Pa., and marked "*For the William H. Baldwin Prize.*" Competitors will mark each paper with a "nom de-plume," and enclose in a sealed envelope the full name, address, class and college corresponding to such "nom-de-plume."

For any additional details concerning the scope and conditions of the competition inquiries may be addressed to the Secretary.

Fifteen essays were submitted in 1912 for the essay on "The Appointment of Higher Municipal Officers by the Merit System." The prize was awarded to Arthur Dexter Brigham, of the Senior Class, Harvard University. Richard H. Dana, Esq., of Cambridge, Mass., and John H. Thacher, formerly Civil Service Commissioner, Kansas City, Mo., acted as judges.

Ten essays were submitted in 1913 for the essay on "The Best Sources of City Revenue." The first prize was awarded to Miss Sybel Edelweiss Loughead, of Radcliffe College, Cambridge and the second to Mr. Edward A. Lawlor, of Harvard. Dr. L. G. Powers of the Bureau of the Census, Washington, D. C., and George C. Sikes of the Chicago Bureau of Public Efficiency acted as judges.

On behalf of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL LEAGUE,

CLINTON ROGERS WOODRUFF, *Secretary*

Secretary's Office
North American Building
Philadelphia, Pa.
September, 1913

EIGHTEENTH ANNUAL MEETING
OF THE
NATIONAL MUNICIPAL LEAGUE

Held at Los Angeles, California

July 8, 9, 10, 11 and 12, 1912

Monday Evening Session

Monday, July 8, 1912, 8 p.m.

The meeting was called to order in the Temple Auditorium by Lieutenant-Governor A. J. Wallace, of California, who, after a brief and interesting address, introduced Honorable George Alexander, mayor of Los Angeles. Mayor Alexander welcomed the delegates, extended the hospitality of the city to them, and expressed the hope and belief that the holding of this convention at this time in the city of Los Angeles, and the discussions and advice of the delegates would be of great assistance to the city's board of freeholders in its work of framing a new charter for the city of Los Angeles. Prof. Albert Bushnell Hart of Harvard University, on behalf of the National Municipal League, responded happily to Mayor Alexander's address of welcome.

Hon. William Dudley Foulke, of Richmond, Indiana, president of the League, was then introduced by Chairman Wallace, and delivered the annual address of the president, his subject being "Expert City Management."[1]

At the conclusion of the president's address, announcement was made by Chairman Wallace of the "Civic Exhibit," being held in Temple Auditorium.

Tuesday Morning Session

Tuesday, July 9, 1912, 9.30 a.m.

President Foulke in the chair.

The report of the executive committee was presented by M. N. Baker, chairman of the committee, with the following remarks.

Mr. Baker: The work of the executive committee while most interesting to its members while in session, would be very dull to review to those present. It consists chiefly of going over matters of administrative detail. The net result of the work has been reported to and approved by the council, and the report, which consists chiefly of statements of appointed committees, and passing upon details, briefly, has been filed with the secretary, and is available for examination by any who are interested.

The report of the treasurer for the year ending March 31, 1912, was read by the secretary.

The report of the committee on nominations was read by Robert S. Binkerd, of the committee. Upon motion of Mr. E. B. Hanson, of San Francisco, seconded by Mr. Charles A. Murdock, it was unanimously amended by adding the name of Charles Francis Adams, of San Francisco, as a member of the council. The report, as amended, was upon motion unanimously carried, adopted, and the secretary was instructed to cast the ballot for the nominees of the committee.

The Secretary: I desire to say that I have cast a unanimous ballot for the following:

For president: Hon. William Dudley Foulke, Richmond, Indiana.

For vice-president: Miss Jane Addams, Chicago; Camillus G. Kidder, Orange, N. J.; President A. Lawrence Lowell, Harvard University; Hon. George McAneny, New York City; *J. Horace McFarland*, Harrisburg, Pa.; Charles Richardson, Philadelphia; *Chester H. Rowell*,

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[1] See National Municipal Review, vol. 1, p. 549.

Fresno, Cal.; *James M. Thomson*, New Orleans; *Dudley Tibbits*, Troy, N.Y.

For secretary: Clinton Rogers Woodruff, Philadelphia.

For treasurer: George Burnham, Jr., Philadelphia.

For Council: Robert Treat Paine, Boston; Harvey Stuart Chase, Boston; William Bennett Munro, Cambridge; Albert Bushnell Hart, Harvard University; William G. Low, New York City; Eugene H. Outerbridge, New York City; Richard S. Childs, New York City; Arthur C. Ludington, New York City; William M. Chadbourne, New York City; Raymond V. Ingersoll, New York City; *Julius Henry Cohen*, New York City; Knowlton Mixer, Buffalo; Charles W. Andrews, Syracuse; Merwin K. Hart, Utica; Clarence L. Harper, Philadelphia; Thomas Raeburn White, Philadelphia; Oliver McClintock, Pittsburgh; A. Leo Weil, Pittsburgh; M. N. Baker, Montclair, N. J.; William P. Bancroft, Wilmington, Del.; Charles J. Bonaparte, Baltimore; John Stewart Bryan, Richmond, Va.; Elliott Hunt Pendleton, Cincinnati; Walter L. Fisher, Washington, Edward L. Burchard, Chicago; *President Edmund J. James*, University of Illinois; John A. Butler, Milwaukee; Frederick Cook Morehouse, Milwaukee; N F. Hawley, Minneapolis; Dwight F. Davis, St Louis; *James W. S. Peters*, Kansas City, Mo.; *C. G. France*, Seattle; *W. G. Eliot, Jr.*, Portland, Ore.; *Richard W. Montague*, Portland, Ore.; *Charles Francis Adams*, San Francisco; Rev. Charles N. Lathrop, San Francis; Meyer Lissner, Los Angeles; *Mrs. Charles Farwell Edson*, Los Angeles; W. B. Lighthall, Montreal, Canada.

The names in italics are new officers or members of the Council.

The Secretary: I take this opportunity of saying that it is an unusual pleasure to cast this ballot because it is the first time that I have had the pleasure during my eighteen years of service as secretary of this organization, to cast a ballot for a woman member of this council.

The President: The next upon the program is an address upon "Simplicity, Publicity and Efficiency in Municipal Affairs," by Clinton Rogers Woodruff.[1]

The next paper upon the program is "The Federal Government as a Potential Contributor of Municipal Advancement," by Frank A. Wolff, of the bureau of standards, Washington, D. C.[2]

The President: The subject of the next paper is "Commission Government for Large Cities,"[3] by Prof. William Bennett Munro, assistant professor of government at Harvard University; to be read by Mayor Mott of Oakland.

The President: The subject of the next paper is "Home Rule in California,"[4] by Prof. Thomas H. Reed, of Berkeley, California, the assistant professor of government at the University of California.

Professor Reed: Sometimes city councils were not very willing to have boards of freeholders called together. They did not know what might be the result of their work. Los Angeles never lets a chance go by to present to the legislature an amendment to her charter. That is one of the things for which we admire Los Angeles, that when she has something which is not right, she is willing to change it. Los Angeles is the Athens of California. She loves new things.

The next subject upon the program is "County Home Government," by the Hon. Leslie R. Hewitt, senator from Los Angeles.

County Home Rule

Senator Hewitt: The National Municipal League has appeared here at a very auspicious time for government making in Los Angeles. I presume you know that the city of Los Angeles is about to repeat what the genial professor referred to a few moments ago, of adopting a new suit of clothes. In other words, we are going to have another new charter for the city of Los Angeles. Perhaps, however, not so many of you know that the county of Los Angeles is also about to adopt a charter, or at least to vote upon a charter. Now, municipal powers, municipal home rule, and those matters which pertain to local self-government in cities are familiar subjects. They are rapidly becoming more familiar subjects. So far as counties are concerned, however, it has been more or less of an unknown quantity with us. We have not heard of county home rule. We have not, in fact, paid very much attention to county government in any particular, except perhaps once in four years to participate in the election of divers and sundry county officials. It comes to us as a message quite as important in its own way, although it does not touch us at as many points as municipal home rule does. The city touches us at every point. The county, however, is something which we do not hear much about, except when the tax collector comes around or the sheriff appears to preserve the peace, or when the county supervisors let some contract to build some building which we did not know anything about.

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[1] See National Municipal Review, vol. ii, p. 1.

[2] See at end of this report for outline of Dr. Wolff's paper.

[3] See National Municipal Review, vol. i, p. 562.

[4] See National Municipal Review, vol. i, p. 569.

It is proposed now, perhaps somewhat timidly, but nevertheless, most decisively, to adopt a charter for the county, which shall perhaps eventually result in a government for the county such as we enjoy in the city.

The city charter in this state has been one of the very highest instruments for governmental purposes, and the county government law has been merely a log-rolling performance, therefore county government has sunk to a low level in this state. What the people perform is simply, every two years, to elect the chief officials of the county. This matter of legislative power, also, has grown up from year to year, as a sort of a composite result of what a board of supervisors in one county would want to have the power to do and the board of supervisors in another county would wish to have the power to do, and so on through the state; so that, massing this thing all together, the legislative powers of the county, outside of the powers which have been referred to, are merely the aggregate of these special things which the counties throughout the state have seen fit, from time to time, to exercise, or wished to exercise. This, then, consists, broadly, of the legislative powers of the county and the executive powers of the county, as suggested by the various county officials. Now then, so far as municipalities are concerned, infinite variety, of course, of form and of function is demanded. The municipality touches the state at a comparatively few points.

The county has some features purely of a state agency, and the government thereof must observe some degree of uniformity throughout the state. It cannot have, therefore, the same variety of operations or functions that a city can have. It has certain officers whose duties are the same throughout the state. The sheriff is the peace-keeper throughout the state, in one county as well as another. The county recorder is the keeper of the public documents and his duties are largely the same throughout the state. The clerk is the custodian of the records of the superior court and the files and documents in court proceedings, and so on, and his duties are the same throughout the state. Therefore, there should be, throughout the state, officers who perform these general functions which are common to all the counties of the state. Notwithstanding, there is a measure of local control which can be given to the counties.

If there is to be improvement governmentally and politically speaking, it must be by bringing home to the individual, of a sense of his responsibility and participation in matters governmental.

In the county that has not been the case. However, it is believed that, by the adoption of this county charter system, counties themselves may determine what officers they shall have, within the limitations to which I have referred; what salaries they shall receive; and may provide a civil service system in their own counties—a thing, by the way, which we have had great difficulty in getting even a hearing upon by the legislature. We can require more to be done by the county officials than the state law itself requires. We can do with them as we see fit.

I might suggest, for the benefit of the gentleman who I believe is to follow me upon the subject—the matter of the short ballot proposition. As it is now, we have a great list of officers to elect, the ballot consisting, I believe, of something over twenty names. It goes without saying, where the people have to pass upon twenty officers—that means at least eighty candidates for these offices—the people do not know half of them; perhaps not a quarter of them. Therefore, abundant opportunity is had for the slipping in of incompetent officials.

We have hit upon this plan of county home rule, which has been adopted, perhaps, somewhat hesitatingly, just as was the plan of municipal control. We pioneered upon that subject. We have not, of course, obtained complete success yet upon it. We provided in the old city charters that they should be subject to control by general laws, for fear we might go too far. So, with regard to counties, in this first attempt at county home rule, we have provided that the counties shall be controlled by general laws in certain respects; but it may be that, in course of time, if we succeed in the county home rule as we are succeeding in city affairs—I have no doubt but what, in good time, a complete system of county home rule, within reasonable limitations, will be successfully worked out.

THE PRESIDENT: The next speaker upon this novel and important subject is Richard S. Childs, of New York, the secretary of the Short Ballot Organization.

MR. CHILDS: I am not speaking particularly of California counties. I do not pretend to know the California system well enough to go into such detail. I am speaking of counties in general, as they run throughout the country.

CONSTRUCTIVE SUGGESTIONS FOR DESIGNING COUNTY GOVERNMENTS

The county is an illustration of all the favorite American faults of government design, raised to the n'th power. It exhibits at its worst every one of the fallacies cherished by our grandfathers and the Jacksonian Democrats. For example, it carries the disconnection of powers to its logical extreme and makes each officer independent of the others and a law unto himself except insofar as he may be restrained from excesses by the fear of prosecution by the district attorney or the governor for transgressing a tangled hedge of legislation. The board of county supervisors, or whatever they may be called, must raise money to pay the bills of numerous officers whose work is laid out by the state and whose conduct they cannot control. The district attorney must work hand in glove with a sheriff who has considerable latitude as to maintaining an *entente cordiale* with him. The state, after making laws, must leave them to the tender mercies of insubordinate agents who are free to exercise a pocket veto by silent non-enforcement if they do not like the laws or think that enforcement will be unpopular in their neighborhood. The clerk who serves the judges may embarrass and annoy his superiors by lax service and yet feel secure in his office. The district attorney may let his cases drag while he goes fishing and the supervisors must helplessly pay the bills for the waiting prisoners in the jail till he finds it convenient to come back.[1]

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[1] This sketch of the possibilities inherent in the present typical county was purely a work of imagi-

There is nothing in the county to enforce harmony and coöperation between its various officers except a chaotic mass of printed memoranda, called laws, passed and amended decades ago and quite too numerous to be read.

The rules for planning a correct county are the same as for any government. For instance:

1. The tax levying and tax spending bodies should be one: (a) so that it will have the power to raise money needed to give good service—if the public demands good service; (b) so that it will have power to compel economy of service if the public demands low taxes. In other words, put the officials between two fires.

2. The ballot should be short and the elective officers all conspicuous.

The public cannot be expected to control officers whom they cannot see. Obscurity destroys democracy. To get a county democracy that will "democ" every official who remains on the elective list must be made sufficiently conspicuous to be visible to his constituency. He can not be conspicuous in a crowd so the ballot must be short. He cannot be conspicuous if his office is insignificant and overshadowed, so if he remains elective his powers must be made great enough so that he will tower up into public view where the people can see his good works and hit him with a brick. Any other condition makes politics the private bailiwick of a few professionals and develops bossism.

3. The power that makes the law should be obliged to face the public resistance to its enforcement: (a) so that public resentment will act only on those who have power to amend the law; (b) so that laws will not be nullified by local non-enforcement.

As a judicial unit the county enforces state-made laws. The people of the county should not have power to nullify a statute by electing a local judge, sheriff or prosecuting attorney pledged to ignore or soften a state law. A public sentiment hostile to the law should find no vent save against the local members of the legislature, who have power to correct the law at its source in the legitimate way. As county courts cannot set aside or modify statutes the sentiment in favor of electing judges because of their practically legislative powers do not apply. Therefore let the county judges be appointed by the governor, let the court appoint its own clerk and its own sheriff to keep prisoners, execute warrants, summons and carry out sentences. Make the prosecuting attorney an appointive subordinate of the attorney-general of the state, who in turn should be appointed by the governor. Let the prosecuting attorney have as much of the sheriff's power as he needs to get witnesses and evidence and to make his own arrests.

Thus far we have roughly followed in the state the federal plan, the county courts being parallel to the federal district courts, the sheriffs to the federal marshals, the prosecuting attorney to the district attorney. The state will pay all the bills of the judicial system, maintain the courthouses, prisons, etc.

The county clerk does what the state requires. The state therefore should pay the bills and appoint the clerk, making him the local member of the staff of the secretary of state, who in turn should be appointed by the governor.

As a business unit for maintaining roads, schools, etc., the county is purely local in function and it should authorize the board of supervisors to do the work and collect the necessary taxes to pay for it. The supervisors should have power to hire and fire, for without this power they cannot compel efficiency in subordinates or be held responsible for

nation, but when I read it to the Los Angeles County charter board there was an unexpected roar of laughter, and as I halted in some confusion, I was informed that I had exactly described the existing local situation. Mr. Casey of Oakland who also heard the paper volunteered "If I had not known otherwise I would have supposed that you were reporting the results of my own intensive investigation into the workings of Alameda County."—R. S. C.

the tax rate. Let them appoint their own treasurer, surveyor, road commissioners.

Abolish the county auditor and establish a state examiner under the appropriate member of the governor's cabinet, with power to investigate and criticise any county management at any time and report to the public, but not to interfere or dictate.

In many well settled parts of the country there are no purely business functions of the county which could not easily and appropriately be taken over by the several cities and townships therein. This should be done where possible, whereupon the county as a political entity would disappear entirely. Nobody would mourn but the politicians, whose stoutest and most picturesque citadel would be destroyed.

The President: We will now have the last paper upon this same subject of county home government, by Percy V. Long, Esq., city attorney of San Francisco.

Mr. Long: I shall confine myself to a discussion of San Francisco city and county. It may interest you to know that San Francisco, up to a few months ago, was the only instance of a thoroughly consolidated city and county in this country. There are some cities throughout the west and in the middle east which have a form of consolidation, but it is not such a pure form of consolidation as we have in San Francisco. I was asked some months ago to prepare a paper giving a brief outline of the experience of San Francisco and of the origin of the consolidated city and county government there, and I had some difficulty in finding the origin of the idea. I searched through the proceedings of the legislature in 1855, 1856 and 1857, and through all of the libraries which have been preserved from our fire, but found nothing to aid me; and it was not until I went to the state library in Sacramento, that I found the origin of the idea in a petition or memorial presented to the legislature in 1856, asking for a consolidation of the two forms of government in San Francisco.

The conditions had become almost intolerable. There was a good county government, but a vicious city government, and during that period the city lost, through the inefficiency and corruption of the city officials, vast properties, which would have today run into the millions—through the neglect and inefficiency of the city officials. This memorial set forth the necessity for a change of the form of government and the advantages of the proposed consolidation in the saving of expense of administration, by avoiding the duplication of officers having similar duties to perform, and also obtaining increased efficiency by avoiding conflict of authority between various officers of the city and of the county, such as the police force and the sheriff's office.

In order to meet the prayer of that petition, an act was drawn, consolidating the city and county governments, and after a period of long debate it became the organic law.

Under that act, one set of officials was to be elected. We did not have complete home rule, because, unfortunately, the legislature, from time to time, as Professor Reed has pointed out—in fact, at every session, passed statutes providing either more officials or making for some measure of interference; but it certainly reduced expenses, and, while a many-shaped measure, was a great improvement upon anything that had existed prior to the time that it went into effect. It was not until the constitution was amended in 1896, prohibiting the legislature from any interference in purely municipal affairs—and also, I think, in 1897 or 1898, a constitutional amendment was adopted, permitting a city and county to be merged under a freeholders' charter, and enumerating certain powers which such city and county might have, that we got a complete measure of home rule. Right after that, the present charter, or a portion of the present charter, was drafted and submitted to the people, in 1899 was adopted, and in 1900 went into effect. That charter centered the power largely in the hands of the mayor; made the board of supervisors a body for the passage of such local police laws as might be deemed necessary, and imposed upon that body the duty of providing the revenue and apportioning it to the various departments. There are some features of the charter which, in my judgment, could be effectively corrected, and one is, some plan by which the police department and the sheriff's office could be made one. We have the peculiar state of affairs, by which an individual is arrested by a police officer for a felony and comes up for hearing before a police magistrate, who is a purely city official, he is bound over to the superior court for trial, and then handed over to the sheriff, who takes him away from the city prison to the county jail, and from that time on he is in the charge of the sheriff; and the sheriff has charge of the serving of all process and proceedings of that character. Some day I expect to see the city police force and the county police force in the control of one department. We have found, however, the consolidated city and county government highly efficient, and I believe it will be found that the use of the machinery of consolidated city and county government will increase throughout this country. In San Francisco, we have found it very successful.

Round Table Discussion

Tuesday, July 9, 1912, 2 p.m.

Prof. Augustus Raymond Hatton, of Cleveland, presiding.

Mr. Robert S. Binkerd of New York: California is the first state in the United States that I have ever known which understands what municipal home rule means. In the second place, it is the only state in the United States where I have even seen five persons together in any place at any one time who had the slightest interest in county government. Municipal home rule is not an academic theory or a meaningless plank in political platforms, although in a large part of this country it is still so considered. It is a fundamental of statesmenship; so fundamental that the great historian Niebuhr, after spending a life time in the study of the history of the Roman Republic and the Empire, declared it to be his profound conviction that as a result of that study that municipal self-government is the basis of civil liberty. And once in a while a truly great statesman like Von Stein of Prussia has happened along, and he has seized upon municipal self-government as one of the great agencies by which a state shall be rejuvenated. He seized upon municipal self-government as one of his principal agencies for rejuvenating Prussia at the very time it was under the heel of Napoleon.

Los Angeles today is a living illustration of the fact that the only way to secure effective government and the largest amount of interest in that government is to throw the government upon the people. I had the pleasure of speaking to a conference of New York mayors on June 10, on "Since Everybody Believes in Home Rule for Cities, Why Don't We Have It?" and I took occasion to analyze, after having heard the governor of the state and the speaker of the assembly, speak the preceding year on municipal home rule, and swearing allegiance to it forever—I took occasion to analyze the legislation which has been put on the statute books in this past year by the New York legislature. Out of 142 laws that first came out of the grist 51 of them interfered in the most specific and irritating manner with the local government; and if I were to try to epitomize the value of the contribution of the state of New York to municipal government for the year 1912, it would read something like this: That Hoosic Falls may pave $50,000 worth of its streets; that the city of Port Chester may borrow money to repair a fire house; that the town of East Chester may purchase a fire engine costing not over $8000; that the city of Bedford might change the salary of its superintendent of education; that village trustees may now at last sprinkle village streets; that the town of Courtland may make an annual appropriation for the Helping Hand Association, and that Saratoga Springs might license dogs.

Mr. F. S. Spence of Toronto: The peculiar form of administration that has grown up in the city of Toronto is an outcome of an English principle that people in the United States do not, for perhaps good reasons, adopt. We have heard a good deal about the wisdom of separating, the wisdom of discriminating, between the different governmental functions of administration and legislation; and that is right. The English people always discriminated between them, but the English people never looked upon it as a wise course to separate them. Consequently, in the English parliament and in the Canadian legislatures and in British and Canadian municipal councils we have what we call "responsible government." That is, the administrative body and administrative officers must always be responsible to the legislative bodies whose mandates they carry out. A British minister of the crown, who is a member of the cabinet council, which is the national administration, must have a seat in the dominion parliament. A member of the provincial administration in Canada must have a seat in the legislature. A member of the municipal administration in our city must have a seat in the municipal council, and be a part of it. We elect a board of control, a mayor and four controllers by the citizens at large. They are charged with the duty of carrying out the instructions of the legislative council—the body which is the council. They appoint on ratification by the council the administrative heads of all the departments. Seven wards elect a council of 18 representatives. These with 5 members of the board of administration constitute the common council and they all sit together and make laws. They sit together to vote money. Then they assign to the board of control the duty of carrying out their instructions, spending their money, supervising affairs through the permanent heads of the departments. The board of administration meets every day, 11 o'clock every morning. The heads of the departments meet with the board for the purposes of their particular department. We have found out the system to work well. We do not have any recall provision because we have every elective official—member of the council and board of council—come back to the people every year for reëlection. We have supervision by the electors every year, supervision of the administrative body by the council continuously, paid heads of departments, and I think that we have a plan based on the principles of responsible government that gives us a good many of the advantages that you propose to obtain by your commission plan.

There is a difference between our plan and the Massachusetts plan in this, that our election does not come until right at the end of the year of service of our alderman, and he has got a full year to put in. And when he is nominated—and any one can be nominated by any two citizens—he is elected in one week from the date of the nomination, the whole campaign takes only one week, and it does not take a great deal out of a man's time, and then we settle down at once for the next year's business. But with the idea of his election and the fact people are going to pass judgment upon him in a very short time, the anxiety of the general alderman is to make a record in the council because that is what settles the question of whether or not he will find favor with the people when the next election rolls around.

TUESDAY AFTERNOON SESSION

Tuesday, July 9, 1912, 3 p.m.

Mrs. Andrew C. Lobinger, the president of the Woman's Club of Los Angeles, presiding.

CHAIRMAN LOBINGER: We expected to have two meetings this afternoon, one for men and one for women, and what the women were to discuss was the things that are especially interesting to them, about health and children, but there could be no women's meeting really, because woman is the race, and what is interesting to her is interesting to everybody; and so, perhaps, it is a good thing that these meetings were put together. We hear of civil service reform and health and children and everything all together. There is no longer a woman question—only a human question, and we are all of us equally interested in everything.

The first paper was entitled "Honesty Plus Efficiency," by Meyer Lissner, Esq. Mr. Lissner urged that honesty is not enough—that there must be efficiency.[1]

A paper on "The Need for an Adequate Civil Service Law,"[2] by Elliot H. Goodwin, of New York, secretary of the National Civil Service Reform League, was read.

Clinton Rogers Woodruff, as chairman, read the report of the joint committee on the selection and retention of the higher municipal officials.[3]

M. N. Baker of Montclair, N. J., read a paper entitled "Municipal Health Problems," which will be published in full in a future number of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW.

THE CHAIRMAN: We are very sorry indeed that Mrs. Caroline Bartlett Crane will not be able to speak.[4]

Mrs. Crane is an example of the new woman, a woman who has gone out into home-making on a tremendous scale. She is helping the people to have good homes. She goes into a town and studies it. She is really a friendly visitor when she goes into a city. They often think she is an unfriendly visitor, because she tells them the truth, and the truth is salt and bitter and good, and in the end they find that what she tells them has been a tremendous help. There are a great many cities in the United States that have had a civic awakening because Mrs. Crane has been to them and has studied their problems, has awakened the public to the need of a change, and we hope that sometime in the future we may have the chance of hearing of the work that Mrs. Crane has done (applause).

WEDNESDAY MORNING SESSION

Wednesday, July 10, 1912, 10 a.m.

Mr. Edward L. Hydecker read a paper on "Municipal Finances."[5]

THE CHAIR: We have next a paper by Prof. Carl C. Plehn of the University of California, a very well known tax expert, upon substantially the same subject, which will be read by Mr. John Mitchell, Mr. Plehn not being fortunate enough to be able to be present at this meeting.

MUNICIPAL TAXATION[6]

Taxation is perhaps more than any other one feature of government an outgrowth of local historical conditions. One can easily demonstrate the great merits of the British income tax, as illustrated during many years of experience, and its vast superiority to our taxes. But could the most silver-tongued orator persuade the American people to adopt it? I doubt it. But I do know that if we did adopt it we should have to spend years of patient endeavor and educate a new generation or two to new ideals of taxation before we could make it work satisfactorily.

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[1] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. 1, p. 639.

[2] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. 1, p. 639.

[3] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. 1, p. 646.

[4] On account of a disabling accident just before the time of her address, Mrs. Caroline Bartlett Crane, of Kalamazoo, Mich., was unable to appear again during the convention.

[5] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. 1, p. 577.

[6] Condensed by the Editor.

Our American municipal tax system seems to be peculiarly deep-rooted. Dignified and authoritative commissions and learned bodies have solemnly decided that some other tax, for example, a rental tax, would be better than the tax on land and buildings. But these proposals have fallen on deaf ears. It is, so far as I can see, useless to suggest substitutes. Nor am I of the opinion that the land and building tax is altogether bad.

The taxation of land and buildings on an ad valorem basis is the main support of our California cities. The chief faults of this tax are that land and buildings are not uniformly assessed in the same proportion to value, although everybody is convinced that they should be.

The causes of these conditions fall into two groups. One has its origin in the past and is so far as California is concerned happily bygone. That was the practice of apportioning state taxes on the basis of local assessments. This led each county, which in California is the administrative unit for taxation, to endeavor to value its property for purposes of taxation far below its true value. This, in turn, led inevitably to such chaos that uniformity was impossible. Moreover, the county valuations sank so low that if the cities had adopted the same valuations for city taxation, they would not have been able to raise the funds needed within the tax rate limits set by the people in their charters. Hence the cities had to go to the expense of a separate valuation at a higher percentage of true value, and this further confused the situation.

Since 1910 this state has enjoyed separation of state from local taxation and there has been no state ad valorem tax, except one. While it was not anticipated at the time of the adoption of separation that complete separation could be attained from the very first, yet such has been the case. The state raises its $15,000,000 to $17,000,000 each year and pays over to the local schools some $5,000,000 without recourse to an ad valorem tax.

Subsidiary causes of the inequalities are the elective system of choosing assessors, the absence of strong central control, the rapidity of city growth which makes land values shift erratically, the existence of many scattered pieces of unimproved land interspersed among the improved lots, the absence of any accepted rules of assessment, and lack of publicity and lastly, inertia and indifference.

There is a movement known as the "home rule" movement. The gist of this is well-known. It is really a movement for "local option" in all matters of taxation. It is backed, endorsed and supported by many who are single taxers, because they see in it a possible chance to get their hobby tried out. The advocates of this movement in this state assume to find in the report of the special commission on revenue and taxation, the commission partly responsible for the adoption of separation of state from local taxation, some support for their plan. That commission did, it is true, point out that after separation the cities and counties might enjoy a certain degree of home rule in matters of taxation. But the same report explained that this would have to be limited to a choice as to whether the assessed valuation should be low and the tax rate high, or the assessed valuation high, and the tax rate low. This is very different from the present proposal which is that cities and counties should have the power to tax whom and what they please, to exempt whom and what they please and to use any mode or method of taxation they please.

The first argument usually advanced is that if freedom is good for individuals it must also be good for communities; that freedom of this kind would tend to awaken interest in local government and would make for good citizenship on account of that interest. In answer to this it may be pointed out that freedom is never attained successfully except in obedience to law. The great apostle showed the way to freedom when he said, "the law shall make you free." It is not "freedom" that is proposed, it is license.

Another argument is that the governing bodies of the cities know local conditions better than does the legislative or any other central governing body and on that account, they are better fitted than the state to deal with local taxation. The favorite illustration is what does the representative in the legislature from an interior farming community know about the tax problems of a commercial or maritime city. The unfortunate feature of this argument is that it ignores the fact that the whole historical trend in matters of local taxation has been in the other direction, namely, from wide local option and highly diverse systems, to central control and uniform systems. The great cities of Europe which started with a high degree of independence have *all*, without exception, surrendered to laws providing uniform taxation throughout the kingdoms to which they belong. The New England towns have likewise surrendered their original independence for the higher degree of freedom which comes with uniform law.

What guarantee is there that the power to grant exemptions to tempt capital would prove to be *not* a lure in the hands of the cities, but a club in the hands of capital. It is reported to have so worked in New Hampshire and in the southern states. But it is the intermunicipal wars that can be precipitated that are to be dreaded. San Francisco strives to build up her port by luring vessels from Los Angeles, San Diego and Portland. Los Angeles, San Diego and Portland retaliate and bitter feelings are soon engendered. No one of the contestants can be expected ultimately to outwit all the others and in the seesaw back and forth all lose.

It is not true that each city is sufficient unto itself and without an interest in other communities. Every community is interested in the business, the products and industries of other communities. Would not San Francisco, for example, suffer if Sonoma county undertook to lay heavy taxes on the raising of eggs? Would it not raise the price of garden vegetables in San Francisco if San Mateo County should by tax exemption fill its market gardens with factories?

There is, in fact, among the adherents of this so-called home rule movement a considerable body of "single-taxers" whose object is ultimately to remove all taxes from every class of property and persons except land and landowners. This is not the time nor the place to debate the merits of the single-tax. It has great merits, and equally great defects, but it is social reform and not merely tax reform. The object is to use the power of taxation to take for the community the entire income from land. The institution of private property in land, with full freedom to enjoy all the emoluments which come from such ownership, was one of the best gifts our forefathers gave this country, and has contributed very largely to the growth of the country and to the development of its resources. There is no other single institution that contains so powerful an incentive to industry and thrift, and I find it hard to believe that the laborer in the field should be deprived of the profit on the increase in the value of his land. Be that as it may, a single city or a single county is too small an area in which to try the experiment. Suppose that one city goes the full length and places all the taxes on land, will not under local option some other community endeavor to tempt settlers by offering to leave to them half or three-fourths the value of the "unearned increment?" Such experiments should be tried out only under uniform laws, state wide in their application.

We may now turn to the question as to what direction the reform of local taxation should take. The main difficulties are administrative. The administration must be strengthened both as to the personnel and as to the methods used. The work of an assessor is intricate, many-sided and for its proper execution requires training and experience. It is work of a professional character and cannot be learned in a short time. The assessor must know the law. The revenue laws of California printed in fine print with the barest digest of the cases decided by the courts in interpretation of the law, make a volume of over 500 pages. To apply this law to all the varying classes of property under the varying conditions of ownership is even more difficult than to master the law.

We are fortunate in California, as compared with those states in which the assessment districts are the small townships, in that in California the main assessment district is the county. We are also fortunate in that the assessors are elected for a term of four years, and in a large number of counties the habit of reëlecting the assessor has become deeprooted. Our main difficulty is the duplication of work and expense arising from the employment of city assessors to revalue some of the same property valued and assessed by the county assessor.

It is at least questionable whether popular election is the best method of selecting an officer whose work is so professional in character as that of assessor. But probably any other method will be contrary to the democratic spirit of the times. No matter how selected, however, the assessors should be brought under the control of a strong central board. This would be a protection to the assessor himself against undue influence from his constituents, would emphasize the professional and impartial character of his work and would enable the enforcement of uniformity between different municipalities and counties, which is of vital importance to each.

It may be argued that in states which have separated state from local taxation there is no necessity for central control. It is true there is not the same necessity for it as there is when the state imposes an ad valorem tax on the same basis of assessed property. But if the arguments for uniformity of taxation in all different communities advanced before are sound, then central control is highly advantageous. Such a central supervisory board would be the guide and instructor of new assessors, would aid and support the experienced officers and could be the board of assessment for inter-county or inter-municipal property and for certain classes of property not easily assessed by the local assessors. It would be the statistical bureau for the accumulation of information absolutely necessary for the intelligent betterment and adjustment of the tax laws and of their administration.

It is also necessary to have improved methods of assessment. It is too easy to copy last year's rolls, add improvements and changes made, and to guess at changes in values. But the most important means of all for securing uniformity of assessment is to insist everywhere that all assessments should be made at full value.

It is because the mind more readily grasps differences in absolute quantities than in relative ones that the practice of assessing at an assumed percentage fails to result in equality.

Of subsidiary devices the most important, to my mind, is the adoption of a number of fixed rules as to computing the values of related pieces of land, and similar rules for computing the values of lots of varying sizes, and of buildings. There are a number of such rules, some better than others, such as the Somer's system, the New York City rule. I will not enter into any discussion of the relative merits of these rules. Any rule is better than no rule, any rule is better than guesswork.

It is also possible to use more fully than is the practice the information as to values that is afforded by rental incomes. The essential for such a rule is to determine first the class and size of building that would under existing circumstances most fairly exploit the value of the site, and compute its rental. This rental capitalized at some fixed rate, would determine the value of the site and the building, and after due deduction for the value of the building would give the value of the land.

The greatest of all devices for perfecting assessments is publicity. At present the rolls are open to inspection for a certain period of time. Few taxpayers ever take advantage of the privilege to inspect them and fewer still learn much more than their own assessments. If the rolls could be published in sections showing all assessments in each of certain small neighborhoods, so that tax-payers could compare their assessments with those of others, public opinion would soon become a powerful aid to accuracy of assessment.

The main contentions of this address then are: that municipal taxation requires more expert officials working undei uniform rules and laws in each state, subject to the guidance and control of central authority, improved technical methods, assessment at full value and greater publicity.

It may be contended that this deals solely with practice and ignores theory. If so, I welcome the criticism. Sound practice is of itself sound theory. It will be time enough to talk of new taxes, substitutes for the personal property tax and other theories when by developing the administration of the main tax upon which we have come to depend we shall have attained a perfection of administration capable of enforcing taxation equitably between man and man.

The President: The next paper is, "Budget Making: Its Necessity and Significance," by Dr. Jesse D. Burks, director of the Philadelphia bureau of municipal research.

The Municipal Budget as a Community Program

One of the items in the municipal budget of Philadelphia for 1913 as originally formulated was the following:

> *Item 3.* Bureau of Water. For wages of mechanics, drillers, laborers and other workmen connected with repairs to and improvement of the distribution and the laying of service mains, the installation and repairs to meters, the high pressure fire service, the transportation of water rent inspectors and the traveling expenses of pipe inspectors, $402,957.

This item illustrates certain principles or lack of principles, in municipal budget-making which are of such wide application that it will be worth while to discuss in some detail the method involved and its significance to municipal communities.

In the first place, it will be observed that the wording of the item is ambiguous, if not actually unintelligible. It proposes an appropriation of something over $400,000 for a variety of purposes related, to be sure, to the activities of the water bureau, but otherwise not bound together by any clearly defined principle of classification. The item might almost as well read "for the general purposes of the bureau of water, $402,957."

This item, not being subject to unmistakable interpretation, cannot be fitted in to a well considered and clearly defined plan for supplying a community of 1,500,000 citizens with a prime necessity of community life. This is one of sixteen items in an ordinance appropriating to the bureau of water, in 1912, the sum of $1,098,671. Some of the other fifteen items are more clear cut in their language than the one under consideration; but, taken as a whole, the sixteen items fail to give an adequate conception of either the organization or the functions of this important branch of the public service.

An analysis and classification of the details included in the sixteen appropriation items discloses the fact that the bureau of water is performing twelve easily distinguishable functions each with its specific problems of organization and administrative method. To the extent, therefore, that the mayor, the director of public works, the chief of the bureau, the city controller, interested taxpayers, and individual members of the appropriating body desire to think intelligently about the problems of water supply in Philadelphia, it is obvious that these problems must be broken up into their elements and classified under headings that will facilitate the laying of plans for economical and efficient management.

The unanalyzed and undistributed item 3 which has been used for purposes of illustration, when broken up into its constituent parts and so classified as to show the functions affected and the services and things to be purchased, assumes the following form:

1. LEVYING OF WATER REVENUES—DIVISION OF REGISTRAR

OPERATION

Services other than personal

Carfare of inspectors	$2,000

2. EXTENSION, CARE AND INSPECTION OF DISTRIBUTION MAINS AND ATTACHMENTS—OFFICE OF SECOND ASSISTANT TO CHIEF

OPERATION

Services other than personal

Railroad fares	500
Street car fares	4,500
Hotel expenses—pipe inspectors	1,000

3. METER INSTALLATION AND REPAIRS

Personal services

Superintendent of meters at $4.00 per day (325 days)	1,300

MAINTENANCE

Personal services

Plumber, 18 at $3.50 per day (325 days)	20,484
Machinist, 3 at $3.75 per day (325 days)	3,657
Laborer, 18 at $3.00 per day (325 days)	17,550
Laborer, 30 at $2.50 per day (325 days)	24,360
Laborer, 28 at $2.00 per day (325 days)	18,200

4. EXTENSION, CARE AND INSPECTION OF DISTRIBUTION MAINS AND ATTACHMENTS

OPERATION

Personal services

Drivers, 27 at $3.25 per day (325 days)	19,737

MAINTENANCE

Personal services

Plumber, 5 at $3.60 per day (325 days)	5,850
Caulker, 37 at $3.00 per day (325 days)	36,075
Driller, 4 at $3.00 per day (325 days)	3,900
Laborer, 2 at $3.50 per day (305 days)	2,130
Laborer, 24 at $3.00 per day (305 days)	21,960
Laborer, 17 at $2.50 per day (305 days)	12,954
Laborer, 185 at $2.00 per day (325 days)	120,250
Laborer, 30 at $2.00 per day (305 days)	18,300

CAPITAL OUTLAY

Personal services

Caulker, 10 at $3.00 per day (325 days)	9,750
Driller, 4 at $3.00 per day (325 days)	3,900
Laborer, 84 at $2.00 per day (325 days)	54,600

The breaking up of this item into its constituent elements and the systematic classification of these elements under general descriptive headings illustrate possibilities of systematic budget making which have thus far been realized in very few cities of the United States. In main outline, the method of classification illustrated in this concrete example is the following:

1. The proposed or actual appropriations for each kind of service (function) performed by each sub-division of the municipal organization are grouped together under appropriate headings. This grouping is designed to make clear the proposals of administrative officers

as to each activity for which support is requested; to place upon the appropriating body responsibility for specifying what activities shall and what shall not be carried on by each department, bureau, or office; to fix responsibility upon the mayor for approving or disapproving appropriations for the support of each activity; and to serve as an authorization and mandate to administrative officers for the performance of clearly defined services.

2. The character of proposed or authorized expenditure for the performance of each class of public service is distinctly set forth—that is the amounts requested or appropriated for administration, operation (ordinary service), maintenance (repairs and replacements); fixed charges (rents, interest, funds for the payment of debt, etc.); and capital outlays for permanent improvements.

3. The specific services and materials for which each bureau or office requests or for which it is granted appropriations to carry on its several activities are set forth in proper detail under the following standard appropriation titles:

A. *Personal services* (including salaries, wages, and other compensation for personal services).

B. *Services other than personal* (including transportation, subsistence, postage, telegraph, telephone, advertising, heat, light and power, and repairs by contract).

C. *Materials* not already adapted for use as supplies, equipment, etc.

D. *Supplies* (including stationery, fuel, wearing apparel, and provisions).

E. *Equipment* (including live stock).

F. *Structures and parts, and non-structural improvements to land.*

G. *Land.*

H. *Capital outlay* for rights and obligations, and payment of debt.

I. *Fixed charges and contributions* (including rents, interest, insurance, etc.).

J. *Pensions and retirement salaries.*

K. *Losses and contingencies.*

Such systematic and uniform classification of requests and appropriations not only furnishes the means for avoiding ambiguity and uncertainty in the intent of individual items, but makes possible concise and illuminating summaries which are absolutely essential to the intelligent consideration of the financial plans of a single department, or of the municipality as a whole. So long as public officials or interested citizens are limited in their vision to single appropriation items, taken one at a time, or to unanalyzed or unclassified totals, it cannot be expected that large problems of financial and administrative policy will receive intelligent consideration or satisfactory solution. Such questions of policy cannot even be sharply focused much less given their proper perspective unless they are thrown upon a screen as part of an inclusive and well illuminated picture of community needs and community resources. Such a picture obviously cannot be drawn unless, by uniform analysis and classification, all parts are prepared to be fitted in to a single inclusive scheme.

Reverting again to item 3 of the appropriation to Philadelphia's water bureau, this item cannot be combined with other items for the same bureau or with similar items of appropriations to other offices, unless a method of segregation and arrangement be found which will provide a common denominator; limited number of standard headings under which details for all departments may be brought together. Such standard headings are provided by the method of classification described above. It is substantially the same basis of classification employed in the budgets of New York, Chicago, and proposed by the president for use in the formulation of a national budget. It is rapidly being adopted by other municipalities as they face fairly the problem of replacing outworn, haphazard, grab-bag methods of budget making by a systematic and intelligible program of community service.

By reason of the adoption of such a plan of segregating and classifying all departmental estimates for 1913, the city controller of Philadelphia was able, on four pages of his annual statement to the city councils, to present this year for the first time a clear and comprehensive summary of departmental proposals. On one page he presented the request of each department, bureau, or office classified in five columns as "administration and other general expenses; "operation;" "maintenance" (repairs and replacements); "fixed charges and contributions;" and "capital outlays." On another page he showed the amount requested for each of the fifty general functions under which all departmental activities were included. The "care of dependent and defective persons," for example, is a function performed by three different offices. The amounts requested by all three of these offices were brought together under the general heading. The amounts requested for the performance of each function were further classified to show separately the estimates for current expenses and for capital outlays separately.

On two pages the amounts requested by the several departments and offices were distributed in columns showing the specific amounts proposed for personal services, services other than personal, supplies, equipment, repayment of debt, etc.

The four pages of this summary furnished by the controller undoubtedly have been the occasion of wider public interest and more definite thinking on the part both of administrative officials and of the appropriating authority than any similar document which has appeared in recent Philadelphia history. The three classified summaries referred to have raised, in unmistakable form, the main questions of financial policy which must be met and solved during the remaining three years of the present administration. The summaries have, for example, focused attention upon the fact that of the $62,600,000 requested for 1913, over $35,000,000 is for the current operations of the city government which is about $6,000,000 in excess of the revenues available under the existing tax rate. It further directs attention to the fact that almost $9,000,000 or 30 per cent of the year's revenues will be absorbed in the interest and sinking funds necessary to carry the city's debt of $100,000,000. It calls attention to the fact that unless further revenues are provided, the city will not only be unable to meet its needs for current operation, but will be unable to meet the interest and sinking fund requirements upon loans for permanent improvements for which $27,000,000 are requested by the city departments.

The controller's summary statement further emphasizes the fact that the municipal budget constitutes essentially the community's plan for services affecting vitally the health, education, recreation, safety, convenience, and prosperity of its 1,600,000 citizens. Philadelphia, like most other cities of this country, has in the past neglected the opportunity which budget making time each year offers to center the combined attention of citizens and officials upon 100 per cent of the community's need for public service. With the growing appreciation of the intimate way in which the welfare of every citizen is bound up with the community's annual effort to plan for a year's public service, Philadelphia, or Los Angeles, or New York will every year come to realize more nearly the value of city planning that is based upon facts rather than upon guesses; of a service program that is more than a collection of vagrant appropriation items; of citizenship that is informed and exacting instead of merely suspicious and critical; and of municipal management that is open-eyed and efficient instead of merely well-intentioned and honest.

The President. The next and last paper this morning will be upon the subject of "Revenue Accounting," by Dr. L. G. Powers, of the bureau of the census, whom I have the pleasure of introducing to this audience.

MR. POWERS: I confine myself to one phase of what you might call the popular control, that which comes through revenue accounting.

REVENUE ACCOUNTING[1]

The best municipal accounting is the accounting that provides the most information of value in the administration of cities. To this proposition I add a second, which is that the best governedcity is one in which the citizens as a whole take an active interest in the conduct of municipal affairs. Citizens can not form an intelligent judgment with reference to questions of public policy unless they have at their command all the information necessary therefor; and hence I join the two propositions stated to a third: the best revenue accounting must provide not only the information needed by city officials for the conduct of their offices in carrying out the provisions of revenue laws, but also that which is required by the citizens for an intelligent judgment concerning the success or failure, the faithfulness or neglect, with reference to the laws mentioned, of their public servants in the performance of their duties.

Taking these three propositions as a text, I will call your attention to five aspects of the subject to which I assign the specific titles of (1) accounting with revenue accruals; (2) accounting with imaginary revenue; (3) the accounting relations of revenue and costs of government; (4) the accounting relations of revenue and the working capital of municipalities; and (5) the accounting relation of revenue and municipal assets and properties.

ACCOUNTING WITH REVENUE ACCRUALS

When the first society of public accountants was organized in Scotland about sixty years ago, accountants in the commercial world had already begun to recognize the difference between revenue earned or accrued, on the one side, and revenue collected or received on the other. In basing their statements of profit and loss upon revenues earned, accountants established rules for distinguishing between (1) revenues billed or recorded in accounts, but not earned or accrued; (2) revenues earned or accrued, but not billed or recorded; and (3) revenues earned or accrued and also billed or recorded. By the use of their accounts with revenue and their recognition of the differences mentioned, business men were enabled to ascertain the result of their business operations.

Private business undertakings are conducted with the aim of securing profit; but city business, as all other governmental business, is never conducted with that primary end in view. It is the business of (1) protecting person, property and health; providing social necessities and conveniences; caring for the dependent and delinquent classes; bettering social conditions, and performing other services and carrying on other activities in the interest of the common good; and (2) obtaining the money to meet the costs of the services performed and the activities carried on. The differences noted between governmental and private business naturally and inevitably give rise to many differences in accounting. The transactions of a city, as a business corporation, can not be summed up in terms of profit; and the reasons for the use of accounts with revenue accruals in governmental business, other than those for governmental productive enterprises like water supply systems, can never be identical with those for their use in private business for gain. Recognizing this fact, the great majority of governmental accountants and officials in the United States prior to the year 1900 had no systematic accounts with revenues accrued as distinguished from revenues received, and practically took no notice of revenues recorded or billed as distinguished from revenues received, with the exception of the general property tax and special assessments. The introduction by Chicago and a number of other cities in the early years of this century of accounts with revenue accruals marks the beginning of a new era in governmental accounting in the United States.

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[1] Condensed.

The trouble with city revenue accounting without proper controlling accounts and accounts with accruals is that it provides infinite invitations and opportunities for "forgetting," and creates a great and unknown gap between the revenues that some cities ought to receive under their laws and with their general property assessments and those which they actually do receive.

The accounts with revenue accruals which were introduced by Chicago, as stated, undoubtedly has many imperfections, as all schemes for extensive reform must have in any branch of human activity. Their greatest value lies in their recognition of the need of accounts to show the revenues which a city ought to receive during a given financial period, as well as those which they actually do receive. The new accounts, by assisting in securing more efficient administration of revenue laws, are assisting in lifting the burden of government from the honest citizens and taxpayers and compelling the shifty and dishonest ones to meet their obligations to the government. They have also provided the means of measuring the efficiency of those charged with the duty of enforcing revenue laws and collecting revenues.

These desirable ends have not, however, been attained by any city introducing accounts with accruals to any such extent as is possible. The accounts in some cities have too often been employed principally in the preparation of balance sheets with only small administrative value, to the neglect of their use as measures of the efficiency of the municipal machinery for apportioning and collecting revenue. The annual reports of city financial offices having these accounts should present lucid statements or summaries showing for each and every class of revenue the amounts registered or billed during the current and preceding years, the amounts that ought to have been realized, and those that were realized. These figures should also be accompanied with the estimates of revenue receipts that were made at the beginning of the year when the tax rates were established. Further, such summaries and exhibits to be of the highest administrative or popular value should be accompanied with explanations and statements of the reasons for any failure to make the revenue collected equal to the amount which ought to have been realized, or to that which had been estimated as realizable.

ACCOUNTING WITH IMAGINARY REVENUES

One very forceful reason for the preparation of summaries as mentioned above is the fact that many American cities without any clear apprehension of the difference between accrued revenues and revenues recorded in tax registers or ledger accounts have been led into the administrative error of conducting their business on the assumption that their revenues were larger than they actually were.

One of the most marked cases of the evil results of this accounting with "imaginary revenues" and its resulting error, the transaction of business on the basis of uncollectable taxes, is found in the City of New York. The extent to which this legal authority to borrow money on the basis of the accounting record with imaginary general property taxes has been exercised by New York City in the past is evidenced by the fact that when the present comptroller of New York City took office, the outstanding revenue loans issued to redeem similar loans of other years, and thus based largely upon the old accounts with imaginary because uncollectable taxes, amounted to approximately seventy million dollars.

The facts passed in review bring clearly to mind the truth that accounts with so-called revenue accruals may be made instruments of evil as well as of good influence in the administration of city affairs. If associated or combined with other accounts so as to assist officials in ascertaining the extent to which the revenue receipts of a year fall short of or exceed those expected, or the extent to which they fall short of the amount that ought to have been collected by a well-conducted business administration, they are of great value.

ACCOUNTING RELATIONS OF REVENUE AND COSTS OF GOVERNMENT

Revenues are always levied and collected for the purpose of meeting the costs of government incurred for the common benefit or the advancement of the common interests of the citizens. Good revenue accounting must among other ends secure the following: It must prevent the administration from placing any reliance upon, or making any use of imaginary revenues with the consequent evil results, the wrongful transfer of some of the current costs of government upon the future. It must aid in securing the just and equable enforcement of revenue laws, the collection of all the revenue that ought to be received during a given fiscal year, and provide means for measuring the efficiency of the revenue collecting service.

One of the most pressing of these problems for a majority of our American cities is how to obtain revenue legislation that will enable city officials to secure receipts from revenue without the necessity of annually borrowing large amounts of money on short term or revenue loans or, as they are called in some cities, anticipation tax loans, anticipation tax warrants, etc. All amounts paid as interest on these loans are generally included in summaries of current financial transactions as current expenses of governmental operation and maintenance.

These payments for interest on revenue loans are for most cities in large part, if not wholly, revenues wasted; not by inefficient officials, but by the operation of unwise revenue laws. The proportion of this waste may be seen from the fact that some cities are borrowing on these short term loans amounts equal to 80 and even 90 per cent of their general tax levy, and borrowing at a rate of interest that makes the charge equal to 4 per cent of the current costs of governmental maintenance. The stopping of this annual waste is something well worthy of consideration in schemes of revenue accounting and in the presentation of summaries of current financial transactions. Revenue should not be burdened with this cost of government, and the best revenue accounting will find a way of forcibly setting forth this waste in its summaries of revenue and costs of government.

ACCOUNTING RELATIONS OF REVENUE AND WORKING CAPITAL

Every well-managed enterprise, in addition to the capital represented by its fixed properties and equipment, has a working capital in such amounts as will secure its profitable use and reduce transient borrowing to a minimum consistent with the largest profit on the investment of the stockholders. A few of our American cities have such a working capital, and as a result, borrow but little if any money on temporary or revenue loans. The result is that by saving the large interest charge of other cities they are able to enlarge the field and amounts of their expenditures for useful purposes, and to keep their tax rate much lower than the cities without any such working capital.

Comptroller Prendergast of New York City, aided by his very competent assistant, Mr. Fisher, the president of the National Association of Comptrollers and Accounting Officers, has grasped this feature of the administration of municipal revenue, and by a proper analysis of his accounts has opened the way for decreasing his revenue borrowings. This he has accomplished by securing a change in the date of assessment and tax levy and tax collection, and the substitution of semi-annual for annual tax collection. The changes made save the city not far from two million dollars annually on interest charges.

ACCOUNTING RELATION OF REVENUES AND MUNICIPAL ASSETS AND PROPERTIES

The uncollected but collectable portion of accrued revenues constitute a part of the assets of the cities, and has a place in all so-called balance sheet statements, or statements of the financial condition of cities, whether those statements are of the current business of raising and expending money, or of all the properties, assets, liabilities and resources of the municipality. In private business these statements of financial condition are absolutely essential for any wise administration, and the importance of such statements in private business has led and is leading many accountants and governmental officials to overestimate their importance in municipal affairs. I do not wish to be understood as decrying their use in city business administration. I do wish to say that these summaries are of value; but that in the present chaos of revenue laws and the administration of those laws, the most important aspects of revenue accounting are those which will aid in collecting the revenue that ought to be received; which will call attention to archaic revenue laws; and by changes will save the waste that follows the unwise and unnecessary use of revenue loans.

The President: There is a committee from San Francisco that desire to introduce a resolution or make some remarks in respect to the international exposition which is to be held there.

Mr. Percy V. Long: In that connection I desire to offer a resolution to be considered by this body, or by the council, as the custom provides.

Mr. Long here read resolution to the effect that the invitation extended to this League by the city of San Francisco, the League of California Municipalities, the Chamber of Commerce and Civic League of San Francisco to participate in a world's municipal congress and international municipal exhibition in connection with the Panama Pacific International Exposition in 1915 be accepted.

The President: The time and place of fixing the annual meeting of the League is necessarily referred to the council. We cannot always determine that one year in advance. If the resolution is referred to the council I am sure it will have very careful consideration.

Mr. Meyer Lissner: I move that the resolution be referred to the council.

The motion was duly seconded.

Mr. H. A. Mason: I want to extend to this League, on behalf of the League of California Municipalities, the cities and towns of the state of California, a very cordial invitation for you to accept this invitation. We are ambitious. We trust that an exhibition of that kind, a meeting together of all of the organizations engaged in this line of work, will be productive of the highest public good, and we trust that you will vote to adopt, with the true eastern spirit, the resolution that has been presented, and to accept the invitation which we so freely give you.

Mr. Adolph Koshland of San Francisco: We heartily second the invitation of the California League of Municipalities to furnish an exhibit at that time; but as a municipality we are now setting our house in order; we are still building up, and we think that in 1915 we shall be ready to show to the other communities of this country a city government and a city administration which we hope will be well worth the study of the governmental experts which shall come to the convention. We realize that it is unusual for the council of the National Municipal League to determine so far ahead of the time of holding its convention where that convention shall be held, but we call attention to the fact that inasmuch as during the Panama Pacific International Exposition there will be a great many world congresses held in San Francisco, that it will be an opportune time and place for this convention to adjourn to then, so that it may take advantage of the world exhibit, so that it may also take advantage of the fact that a new city, the most modern city in the world, a city regenerated both physically and spiritually, may then become an object lesson for the convention.

Round Table Luncheon

July 10, 1912, 2 p.m., Hotel Alexandria

Professor Thomas H. Reed of the University of California presiding.

The papers of the morning session were thrown open to discussion and were considered in addresses by Mrs. Charles Farwell Edson of Los Angeles, Professor Albert Bushnell Hart of Harvard, Dr. Jesse D. Burks of the Philadelphia Bureau of Municipal Research, Professor Augustus Raymond Hatton of the Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Robert S. Binkerd, New York City Club, and Chester H. Rowell, editor of the Fresno *Republican*. George H. Dunlop gave an account of the establishment and conduct of the Los Angeles *Municipal News*.[1]

Wednesday Afternoon Session

Wednesday, July 10, 1912, 3 p.m.

Meyer Lissner, Esq., of Los Angeles presiding.

The Chair: The first paper will be a discussion of "State versus Municipal Regulation of Public Utilities," by two Californians, who are eminently qualified to discuss the subject intelligently. Mr. Eshelman, who will present the view point of the state regulation, is the chairman of the state railroad commission of California. If you will indulge me for just a moment, I would like to tell you about the railroad commission of the state of California, as it existed for about twenty years last past, and as it exists now and has existed for the past year and a half. The constitution of California has provided for a railroad commission ever since it was adopted in 1879, but it is simply a matter of the history of politics, when I remind you of the fact that the government of California, and of course, the railroad commission, because it was a very important matter to the railroad company, was, up to very recently, under the complete domination and control of a very great railroad corporation, the Southern Pacific. That was changed, and Mr. Eshelman is the head of the new regime of the railroad commission. The old commission did absolutely nothing except draw its salary. It was absolutely inert and inane—purposely so.

I want to relate one little incident of something that happened recently, which will, better than mere words of descriptive matter, tell you the difference between the old regime and the present. The harbor of Los Angeles is known as San Pedro. It was the town of San Pedro before the consolidation, and it is still called San Pedro, although now a part of the city of Los Angeles. The rate between the city of Los Angeles and the harbor, for freight, was practically prohibitive, although it carried probably more freight than any similar stretch of railroad in the state. They charged as much for those twenty miles as they did for several hundred miles in other parts of the state. One of the first things that the shippers of Los Angeles naturally did was to apply to the new railroad commission for a consideration of that rate and a reduction of it, The new railroad commission heard testimony, took it under consideration, and determined that the rate should be reduced, and issued an order that the rate should be reduced materially; about a third on the average. The railroad company, of course, protested and took the matter into the federal court to prevent the going into effect of that rate. The railroad commission filed a demurrer to the complaint, and on the hearing of that demurrer, the federal judge decided that the railroad company had no case, and threw it out of court. The railroad company desired to take the matter higher, and so they suggested to the railroad commission that they, of course, had their constitutional rights, which they had a right to test out to the last extremity, and they would suggest that the station agent at San Pedro be arrested and habeas corpus might be issued in the matter, and so the matter might be taken to the court of last resort. The railroad commission said to those gentlemen representing the railroad company, "We wont do it exactly that way. If we arrest anybody in this matter, and we will arrest somebody unless this rate goes into effect at two o'clock next Thursday afternoon—if we arrest anybody, we are going to arrest the highest responsible officials of the Southern Pacific whom we can find in this state;" which meant the president of the road and the vice president. That was the ultimatum of the railroad commission. At a quarter of two on the day set, the railroad attorneys and officials came to the office of the railroad commission, and said, "Gentlemen, we surrender; the rate goes into effect." And it is now in effect. I have the honor to introduce the president of the railroad commission of California, Mr. J. M. Eshelman.[1]

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[1] See National Municipal Review, vol. 1, p. 441.

The Chair: I have the honor to introduce the distinguished son of a distinguished father, Lewis R. Works, Esq.

Mr. Works: The paper that I shall present for your consideration deals solely with the question of the regulation of privately owned public utilities, and bears no reference whatever to one of the questions that Mr. Eshelman discussed with a great deal of vigor; that is, the question as to whether or not the city of Los Angeles—if that is the city that he has had in his mind in presenting that question—should regulate and control the distribution of water from its own water system outside the city, or whether that regulation and control should rest in the state. It may be proper for me to say something upon that question, because I do not agree with Mr. Eshleman—certainly as to the legal question; and I may say practically the same as to the moral question. However we have to deal with the question as to what the city of Los Angeles and what the state may do upon this phase, as a purely legal question; because it is my opinion, that the state, cannot legally or constitutionally control or affect the regulation of the water supply to be distributed by Los Angeles to people outside its borders.

Mr. Eshelman: I did not say that the state had that power. The power lies between the state and the local board of supervisors.

Mr. Works: I do not grant that, either. Mr. Eshelman presents the question, that wherever that power may rest, outside the city, it is between the state and some—what I may term alien power, and I do not agree that that power rests anywhere; but I do not propose to discuss that matter right now, but I may, and in fact, I will, if the time is not too near consumed when I finish the reading of my paper, say something orally upon that question. I cannot hope to touch it in the manner that Mr. Eshelman has done, because he has put his ideas down in a systematic and consistent whole; but I want to lay before you some things that may be said upon the other side of that particular question, whether I may be able to impress you that my views with reference to that question are correct or not. But please understand that the question that I am about to present to you is simply as to the regulation and control of privately owned public utilities as between city and state, and, as you will see, not limited entirely to the state of California, but in a somewhat broader view.

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[1] Mr. Eshelman's paper is published in the National Municipal Review, vol. ii, p. 11.

Mr. Works then read his paper.[1]

The Chair: We will next hear a report upon "Excess Condemnation," by Robert S. Binkerd, of New York, secretary of the New York City Club. It is a report of the League's committee on excess condemnation, of which he is chairman.

Mr. Binkerd: "Excess Condemnation" is a highly technical subject and before reading to you the very terse conclusions of the committee on that subject, I will try, so far as possible, to divest it of any technical clothes. The power of condemnation is the power on the part of any governmental agency to take, by process of law, private property for public use. Practically every constitution of every state in this country contains, in substance, the provision that private property shall not be taken for public use without due process of law. The highest courts of most of the states of the United States, however, narrowly construed what constitutes due process of law, and they narrowed the power of cities to take private property for public uses, to the actual lines of the physical improvement, so that a city in opening a street, cannot take a single inch outside the width of the street on either side; and the same rule applies to parks, playgrounds, sites for public buildings, and any purpose for which private property can be acquired by a city. Now, excess condemnation means the right on the part of a city to take abutting or surrounding land adjacent to a public improvement. It is excess because it is beyond what is now legal for it to take, although the term is wholly misunderstood in Europe—or not understood, for the reason that there are no such limitations upon the power of taking private property for public use, in European cities. (Mr. Binkerd then cited instances of public improvements in European cities by the exercise of the power of excess condemnation, mentioning the work of Baron Haussman, and important public improvements in Paris and elsewhere.) One of the most important improvements of recent years, which has been done by the city of London, England, was done almost exclusively by what we would call excess condemnation, and the exercise of this power shows that the average recoupment on re-sale of surplus land is about 40%, because, of course, the power to take additional adjoining land involves also the power to hold, to lease or to sell, with or without restrictions, the land which is not needed for actual construction. Now, I call your attention to the fact that there has been notable progress in the last year; excess condemnation having already been achieved in Massachusetts, and being involved in the pending Ohio constitution, and having passed the Legislature of the state of New York; and I will read to you the very brief conclusions of this committee, which are as follows:

COMMITTEE ON EXCESS CONDEMNATION

The committee of the National Municipal League on "excess condemnation" has practically finished its labors. Thanks to the coöperation on the part of the officers of the organization the committee received the services of Herbert S. Swan, who has gathered together the most satisfactory amount of information on this subject ever compiled; together with a large amount of data from foreign countries and otherwise available in English.

This material is being edited for publication in a volume in the National

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[1] See National Municipal Review, vol. ii, p. 24.

Municipal League Series on the control of lands adjacent to public improvements.

The term "excess condemnation" is one not understood in Europe unaccustomed to rigid constitution or to rigid limitation on the powers of government. In America, however, the term "excess" is properly usable because of the great constitutional limitations placed upon governmental powers and the restrictive decisions of our courts in interpreting those powers.

During the past year notable progress has been made. Following an advisory opinion of its highest court, Massachusetts has amended its constitution so as to confer the power of excess condemnation upon its cities. An excellent provision has also been incorporated in the pending Ohio constitution.[1] The New York amendment, which was defeated last year, as been revised and patterned after the Massachusetts provision and was passed by the recent session of the New York Legislature; and at the Third Annual Conference of New York Mayors held at Utica on June 10, was enthusiastically endorsed by the mayors of some thirty-five cities of the state.

Conclusions of the committee

Your committee having in hand the material collected by Mr. Swan and the able and exhaustive legal discussions by the Hon. Walter L. Fisher, the secretary of the interior, and Hon. John DeWitt Warner of New York City, has arrived at the following conclusions:

A city is entitled to powers which will enable it to secure the fullest use of city land and the greatest possible freedom in adjusting its streets, parks and transit systems to the needs of city life;

From time immemorial English common and statute law has recognized that government would be paralyzed if public necessity and convenience were not paramount to private ownership and enjoyment of land;

In built-up portions of modern cities necessary street adjustments cannot be made without leaving much of the abutting property in unusable or unsuitable form;

The scattered private ownership of such parcels long retards proper development along the improvements, and represents an economic drag on the whole city;

It also often involves hardship on the private owner assessed for a benefit which has actually been a detriment to him and destined to wait many years before the owner of contiguous usable land will unite with it and after at his own price the otherwise unusable remnant.

For a city to spend thousands or millions of dollars in the creation of parks, boulevards and public places and then to permit the destruction of the beauty it has created by idiosyncrasies of abutting property owners is a waste of public moneys.

The only thoroughly effective instrument for protecting such public investments and for correlating city land into its most usable forms is the power of excess condemnation vested in city governments.

Whatever recoupment may be received from the re-sale of property so acquired is but an incident in the exercise of this power for public purposes.

Even though there be no recoupment, there is a substantial financial advantage in the ability to acquire whole parcels and thus escape the payment of damages for the destruction of the usability of a parcel.

Wherever the highest courts of a state have broadly interpreted what constitutes a public use, the power of excess condemnation can probably be acquired by more legislative enactment. In some states where courts have been particularly broad-minded, cities may secure such power by merely undertaking the condemnation of adjacent property and carrying suits against such taking to the highest courts.

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[1] This provision was adopted on September 3, 1912.

In most states, however, where the courts have given narrow interpretations to what constitutes a public use, the safest plan of procedure is by amendment of the state constitution. The Supreme Court of the United States in several important cases has fairly clearly indicated that such constitutional enactments would not be declared void under the constitution of the United States.

With the widened scope of condemnation and its increased use for social purposes the method of condemnation becomes of very great importance. Movements to secure the grant of excess condemnation ought also attempt the correction of abuses in existing condemnation methods or attempt to secure a simpler, more direct and less dilatory and expensive method.

As excess condemnation and other condemnation have a great bearing upon city planning, we have appended to this report a short paper by the Hon. Edward M. Bassett on the necessity within reasonable time limits of preventing the erection of buildings within street lines for the purpose of securing damages when the title to such streets actually vests in the city.[1]

These conclusions were arrived at in a meeting held in New York City on May 24, 1912, and are concurred in by the following members of the committee: Robert S. Binkerd, Chairman, Lawson Purdy, Edward M. Bassett, Nelson P. Lewis, Herbert S. Swan.

The Chair: We will now hear the discussion of "Effective Housing Campaigns," by Mr. John Ihlder, of New York, field secretary of the National Housing Association, and Doctor Dana W. Bartlett of this city.[2]

The Chair: I now have the pleasure of introducing Dr. Ernest S. Bradford, of Washington, D. C., the author of one of the few works on commission government, who will read a paper on "Commission Government and City Planning."[3]

Banquet

Wednesday evening, July 10, 1912, 7 p.m.

A banquet was tendered the members and delegates at Hotel Alexandria with Meyer Lissner, Esq., of Los Angeles presiding, who introduced the Hon. William Dudley Foulke as toastmaster. Mr. Foulke also responded to the toast "The National Municipal League." He spoke at considerable length with regard to the importance of the establishment of the merit system in municipal affairs especially along the lines indicated in the report and addresses before the League. He also referred at length to the participation of women in municipal affairs, especially through the vote. In concluding he said:

"Your rate of growth has been far greater than that of any of our eastern cities, your percentage of growth greater than any of our eastern cities of considerable size. That is a wonderful thing; and you can see that growth is a healthy growth. There are no slums here in Los Angeles; there are no vast tenement house districts where people are herded together like cattle. You have a condition of morality in this city that is reasonably high. That means a great deal, but it does not mean everything, because it was right here in Los Angeles that you reached the most critical point in that conflict which seems to be going on in our community between those that have inherited the world's wine and honey and those who make up the great masses of the people; between the capitalistic class and the laborers of the country. It was here that the conflict which seems to be coming, which seems to be growing and gathering everywhere, reached its first decisive point in that dreadful crime which has been the horror of the world, and yet which today we cannot entirely say whether the causes which led to it do not give it a sort of justification which mere venal crimes for the sake of purely selfish things do not have. That has excited the abhorrence of America. We all of us agree a crime of that kind should be punished in a severe way, and yet at the same time that is one of the great questions that is before us, and it is before us in a municipal sense just as it is before us in a national and in a state sense. We find on the one side fortunes that are accumulated beyond all dream of avarice for past times, fortunes that have arisen to the hundreds of millions, acquired frequently by fraudulent means, by the oppression of communities, by means which are a little less than criminal, even though they may evade the provisions of the criminal law. On the other side there is a great mass of humanity who find that their wages do not grow, although the cost of subsistence does grow; who find that their condition is not very much better in spite of the enormously increased amount of wealth that is acquired by the whole community. That condition is fraught with great danger for the future, and that is a danger which we ought to try to foresee. We must try to foresee it in the cities as well as in the states and in the nation. We must not let the conditions of affairs reach that crisis which it reached at the French Revolution. There you had the special privileged class; the sovereign himself and the nobles throughout the Empire, with their noble chateaus all through the kingdom, and on the other side you had the people clamoring for bread, and a man upon the throne, amiable, honest, well-meaning, desiring to do right, but not knowing that it was loaded, not knowing that there was a precipice towards which all those thing must tend. We must be wise in time, and our municipalities as well as our states must take care, must see to it that the great ranks of the disinherited are well provided for, and the opportunities of living well. Not that equality of possessions is ever to be attained—it is not; while equality of intellect does not exist, but equality of opportunity should be given to the young men and the young women, no matter how low the conditions in which they have been reared. (Applause.) In the first place, they should have the opportunity to have strong and healthy bodies. (Applause.) Their lives should not be stunted by child labor (applause), nor by residence in city slums. They should have the chance for the cultivation of the sound mind in a sound body; they should be given an opportunity to embark upon the great struggle of life with a fair chance of success. I believe in individuality. I believe in individual efforts, but at the same time you have got to give them a fair start, and that is the duty of the city. The city must see to that. My friends, that will be the next step that we will have to struggle for. That is part of the struggle now, city efficiency in government, and that the government shall not hesitate to take under its protecting care those weaker classes of the community that cannot so well take care of themselves. Then there will be other questions that will arise in the future, questions that we cannot foresee at the present time. The course of reform never reaches its full consummation."

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[1] This will be published in a future number of the National Municipal Review in which the whole subject of excess condemnation will be considered at length—C. R. W.

[2] See article "Housing at Los Angeles," National Municipal Review, vol. ii, p. 68.

[3] Dr. Bradford's paper was published in full in *The American City*, for August 1912.

After Mr. Foulke's address he spoke of the regret all felt at the inability of Mrs. Crane who had been announced as one of the speakers, to be present, and then introduced Professor Albert Bushnell Hart of Harvard who responded to the toast "Work" with a humorous application of many of the thoughts that had been advanced during the formal sessions of the League.

Mrs. Andrew C. Lobinger, president of the Women's Club of Los Angeles responded to the toast "Los Angeles," in which she set forth the glories and achievements of that interesting city. She was followed by Mr. F. S. Spence of Toronto, Canada, on "Reciprocity in Municipalities," Mr. Robert S. Binkerd of New York on "Simplicity in Municipal Affairs," and Mrs. Owen Wister on "The East," who in the course of her remarks said :

"I think I must begin by saying that the National Municipal League came out of the east. (Laughter and applause.) We are very glad to share it with you. We are very glad to share all of the good things that we have with you except perhaps the Betsy Ross house and those other relics which have become sacred to the whole of the American people and which we think must remain where they are. But will you allow me to say to Mrs. Lobinger that while we are very glad to share with you the National Municipal League and other things we fully intend to keep our own part. As a matter of history it might be interesting to some of you to hear about the very first meeting of the League. With the exception of Mr. Woodruff, I believe I am the only person present who attended that first meeting in Philadelphia in 1894. I was at all of the sessions. I remember those meetings so well, though I have been to many conventions since that time and many meetings which have slipped from my mind, but the Municipal League was presenting to municipalities a great, and what was then a new, idea; and one does not forget it. I can remember the little room in which we met, hardly more than one-half the size of this banquet hall, I think; and I can remember the mottoes over the door: 'National Parties for National Affairs—Municipal Parties for Municipal Affairs.' And, ladies and gentlemen, that was heresy in the city of Philadelphia in the year 1894, and we who were participating in that meeting were looked upon as heretics, and perhaps as not entirely sane heretics. We were told how foolish we were and how foolish it was to cling to a visonary thought. The following of Matthew Stanley Quay said, 'Don't you see that municipal government is an indispensable and integral part of the national government? It is the foundation of our party politics, and American cities can never part with it.' That was in 1894, and in 1912 in our city, which is a large city and a hard city to govern because it is large, and because it is what is sometimes called, a very conservative city, we have elected an independent mayor upon a third party ticket (applause), and we believe we have in Rudolph Blankenburg one of the best mayors who ever governed an American municipality. That is what the National Municipal League did for our city when it came to us in those years ago. That is the reason we believe so fully that it will do the same thing for every American community which will listen to its message.

"The League has a large support in the affiliated women clubs of the east. We have many, many civic clubs in the east, all the way along the Atlantic Coast from Maine to Charleston, splendid civic clubs, women who are working and aiding this National Municipal League in the great service which it is rendering the cause of good government, and the American Civic Association, although we have not been so fortunate as the women of California in the recognition that has been shown them here. I remember at that early meeting Mrs. E. B. Kirkbride of Philadelphia as the founder and the leader of the leagues of good citizenship among our school children—I remember at that first meeting hearing this little lady say, 'Woman is standing at the door, she is opening the door and looking in.' The fortunate citizens of this community have stood by a door that swings a little more easily, that does not have to be knocked at quite so often or so loud or so long. Nevertheless, that same door is slowly opening and throughout our country it is certainly only a question of time when all the women will enjoy the privileges of citizenship enjoyed by you here." (Applause.)

The banquet was concluded with a brilliant address by Chester H. Rowell, editor of the Fresno *Republican* and vice-president of the National Municipal League, on "Government by Newspapers."

THURSDAY MORNING SESSION

Thursday, July 11, 1912, 10 a.m.

PRESIDENT FOULKE in the chair

The first paper upon the program is upon "The Work of the League of California Municipalities," by H. A. Mason, secretary of that League.[1]

THE PRESIDENT: The next is a subject upon which the state of California, and particularly Los Angeles, can perhaps instruct the rest of the country more than any other, and that is "The Actual Operation of the Initiative, Referendum and Recall," by Dr. John R. Haynes, the president of the Direct Legislation League of California, who, of course, needs no introduction to a Los Angeles audience.[2]

MR. EDWARD L. HEYDECKER, New York: We know that Los Angeles is a most delightful city to come to. We have had many courtesies extended to us, and I beg leave to read the following:

> *Resolved*, that the National Municipal League expresses its warm appreciation of the many courtesies received from its hosts, the Mayor of Los Angeles, the Los Angeles Chamber of Commerce and the Municipal League of Los Angeles, and gratefully acknowledges the hospitalities extended by the members of the Los Angeles Committee on Arrangements and the support and welcome it has received at the hands of the city and its citizens.

Upon motion duly seconded the resolution was unanimously adopted.

THE PRESIDENT: Speaking of bosses, the last subject mentioned by Dr. Haynes you will be delighted to know that the gentleman who was selected to present the paper on this subject, the title of which is, "The Boss' Day in Court," is to be followed by another paper, "The Elimination of the Party Boss in California Cities." It may be that it is in consequence of a fear of that, that I have been instructed to announce that Prof. Albert Bushnell Hart is unavoidably detained by urgent business and has asked his young friend, William Barnes Boies Cox Taggart of Illinoisrado to take his place. Therefore, you will hear from the genuine article of a city boss.

Professor Hart then delivered a brilliant, satirical defence of the boss, which has been published in full in *The Outlook*, for October 26, 1912.

THE PRESIDENT: We will now hear from Chester H. Rowell, editor of the Fresno *Republican* and a vice president of the National Municipal League on "The Elimination of the Party Boss in California Cities."

ELIMINATING CALIFORNIA BOSSES

MR. ROWELL: The little town of Fresno, was the first city of California to eliminate the party by law. One of the first cities in the United States so far as I know. We passed the first non-partisan charter, in which we forbade party tickets of any sort on the ballot, and got a modern system, with the one exception that we didn't have any majority rule in it. At the first election, whoever gets a plurality vote gets the election; and in the three times we have tried it, it gave us a good government twice and a bad government once; and the singular thing about it was, the first time it gave us a bad government, it gave us the elimination of the party boss.

Under the new charter we had, the first time, a non-partisan, an extremely good Democratic mayor, elected overwhelmingly. The next time we had a three-cornered fight. We elected a Republican mayor, and the political boss proceeded to run him, so we had the bi-partisan boss system, the Democratic boss running a Republican mayor; and the government was spectacular and inefficient. It did not succeed in being as bad as those who ran it wanted it to be, because we had a good system and we have not any party responsibility for the government and when the government was responsible to the people, it did not dare do half the things it had promised to do. By the end of that administration, I do not think anybody in the town, not excepting the mayor and his boss, knew whether the Republicans or the Democrats had a majority of our city council. I do not suppose anybody knew, and everybody had ceased to care, whether the majority of the appointees were Republicans or Democrats, and non-partisanship had got, not only into our government, but into the very hearts of our people; and just a few days ago, the mayor we have now, a very good man, and a Republican, had to appoint a man to a vacancy on the police commission, and he found that he could not appoint the man that he had selected because an old and forgotten bi-partisan provision of the charter forbade the appointment of the commission all of one party and if he had appointed that man his police commission would have been all Democrats. That idea had not occurred to him, although he was a Republican mayor. When you get rid of partisanship in municipal affairs, you get rid of the party boss, and ultimately you get rid of every sort of boss.

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[1] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. 1, p. 603.

[2] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. 1, p. 586.

The city of Sacramento has been an interesting and recent example. Sacramento has had party bosses, two of them; one Republican, and one Democratic, co-operating with the most admirable system of harmony. That lasted until a few weeks ago when they got a new charter which eliminated the old bosses and the old system. In the first election they had under the new charter, they elected a new sort of people and elected a government that is bound to be a good government, and even Sacramento has redeemed itself. Evidently the mechanism of the government is something.

The system of getting rid of the party boss here in Los Angeles was started first in an effort to elect a non-partisan school board, and that non-partisan school board was elected. That campaign led to various other matters, among them, a non-partisan effort to get possession of the city and county council; and the first time you tried it, you got possession of one of them, but not of the other. The recall, in due time, gave possession of both. Then, out of that non-partisan organization in Los Angeles, and out of various other things—but out of that, more than anything else, finally came a partisan organization which reformed the state, and out of that reform of a party in the state, is now coming a non-partisan organization that seems to be splitting that party all over the United States. So you started here in Los Angeles in order to get a non-partisan school board and now it has grown until it has spread all over the United States, and made a new sort of governmental standard in the United States.

In the city of San Jose is an interesting example of another sort of reform. San Jose for a long time was horribly boss ridden, and it had the unique distinction of being the only city in California where the center of machine rule was in the school department. Out of the school machine of San Jose ran the ramifications that ran the political school machine of California. Wherever you had machine politics in the school system of any city in California, you found it went straight back to the city of San Jose; and there was a magnificent, fine city, the same sort of city it is now, with the same sort of people that are in it now, and yet, some way or other, that fine city, with those fine people, stood for that bad government in that city; and, worst of all that sort of thing which good people ordinarily do not stand for, machine politics in the school system. That machine got reformed by another principle,—by the personal efforts of two men, one of whom is now in congress, and the other of whom wants to be governor, and who believed thoroughly in the sort of reform San Jose needed just then. They did not believe in stealing, they did not believe in drinking. They had all the personal Sunday school virtues themselves, and believed in imposing those virtues upon others. I mean the Hayes brothers, Red and Black, we call them sometimes, by way of distinction. They proceeded, by personal, political and business influence, to over-throw that machine in San Jose and establish a sort of boss rule. And now, some of the people are rising against that sort of a boss rule.

The name of San Jose has rather an unique position in the cities of California of having been personally reformed by men whose ideas were limited, as I said, largely to the Sunday school virtues; because at the time one of these brothers was very efficiently and usefully reforming the city of San Jose, he was also carrying on political deals with the man who was deforming the city organization of San Francisco.

The history of the party boss in San Francisco, and of the whole political upheaval in its government is, in some ways, one of the most interesting and one of the most tragic of which I know. They had for a long time the non-partisan system and non-partisan spirit in San Francisco. That is, the two parties would nominate candidates and the decent citizenship of San Francisco would announce that, "while we have to use the party machinery to nominate, we do not care whether the candidate is a Republican or Democrat; we will organize in favor of whichever is the decentest," and usually the Democrat was the decentest, and usually the Democrat was elected in a city which is not Democratic; which is over-whelmingly Republican; and the party leaders of the Republicans said, each time, "Yes, we stand for it this time, but we will not stand for it any more;" and there was a constant "kicking," because they said, "Non-partisanship there means a Democrat in office;" and then there was a cry about the division of the patronage, and altogether, it took more patriotism than is usually available, for people to help non-partisanship in San Francisco, when the Democratic candidate usually won by it and the Democratic subordinates usually had the patronage. Then came the long Ruef era, which I will not go into now. Then came again a non-partisanship era, and it happens that the mayor is a Republican and neither Republicans nor Democrats care whether he is a Republican or not; and, having had a good deal to do with the local politics of San Francisco, I realize now that the election of the non-partisan, by non-partisan mechanism, has produced real non-partisanship in the hearts of everybody.

The actual mechanism is really worth while. You eliminate the party boss by eliminating the parties from the cities, and then you go through various other evolutions, and among them is the development, in the place of the party boss, of the other sort of boss; of that boss who does nothing but good, and who is worthy of your admiration. You have been accused of having that sort of a boss here in Los Angeles, and if the accusations are true, that Mr. Lissner is boss of the town, it has been the development of the highest and best type of patriotic boss that can exist; and is an interesting example of a step in the evolution from a boss government toward a final government by the people. A very important and necessary, but not a permanent stage. But after people have got rid of the old methods of leadership, there is a stage towards the new one, in which they still need some sort of leadership, organization and leadership from above and for their benefit, and finally reaches to them and comes back a good system but not quite the best; and one of the reasons it is not quite the best is, that it requires a higher degree of unselfishness and devotion to the public than you can permanently expect. You happen to have them here in this city. You happen to have a good many of the right men in this city; but you can't have it permanently, from this more or less centralized leadership that seems to follow the boss system. It seems to me that the people will have to be better organized to do their own governing and develop leadership from below upwards, just as the boss system did, when the boss reaches the control of his district and whoever is able to deliver that district will be the boss in that district. It seems to me, the best leadership will have to come from the development of our various civic clubs, which represent our various interests; the city club, representing all our interests, and the civic club, the federated clubs, representing geographical divisions, and the labor unions; and I think the labor unions can be made very useful civic organizations, even in Los Angeles. But, with these various organizations, the people can organize themselves gradually into larger and larger evolutions, until the time comes that the political organization of the people is able to develop good and intelligent political leadership at all times. Then you will have reached the final stage of popular government, and then you will have had all the virtues of the boss system, just so eloquently enumerated to you by a representative of it, and none of its faults; and it seems to me that California is now in process of evolution toward that system.

The President: We have two more papers this morning, and one of them upon a subject which has excited general attention all over the country, which is, "The Actual Operation of Woman Suffrage in Pacific Coast Cities." I have the pleasure of introducing a lady who can speak upon this subject with authority, Mrs. Charles Farwell Edson, of Los Angeles, the Chairman of the Political Equality League of California, and a member of the Council of The National Municipal League.[1]

The President: We will now have the last paper of the morning, upon the subject of "Socialism in California Municipalities," by Dr. Ira B. Cross, of Stanford University, Assistant Professor of Economics and author of "Essentials of Socialism."[2]

Friday Morning Session

Friday, July 12, 1912; 10 a.m.

President Foulke in the chair

Dr. Wilcox: Before commencing I would like to take a referendum, being a great believer in popular government. I want to know first how many there are in this audience who are generally familiar with the street railway settlements of Chicago and Cleveland? Will you please raise your hands? (A few hands raised.) How many are there who are not generally familiar with the street railway settlements of Chicago and Cleveland? (Many hands raised.) I have here a paper it will take about twenty-five minutes to read. I thought if you were familiar in a general way with the situation I would throw the paper in the wastebasket and make a speech of perhaps fifteen or twenty minutes; but I think under the circumstances I will proceed to read it.

Dr. Wilcox then read his paper entitled "Street Railway Franchises."[3]

The President: The next paper will be by a gentleman who has coöperated with Dr. Wilcox on the committee on public utilities, J. W. S. Peters of Kansas City, the president of the Kansas City City Club.

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[1] See National Municipal Review, vol. 1, p. 620.

[2] See National Municipal Review, vol. 1, p. 611.

[3] See National Municipal Review, vol. 1, p. 630.

Mr. Peters: I feel encouraged in presenting this paper in Los Angeles rather than elsewhere, the first reason being that it is more or less of a novelty and if it is good as a novelty the Los Angeles people will be inclined to adopt it. If it is not good as a novelty they will have a sufficient knowledge not to adopt it and put it into practical operation.

Mr. Peters then read his paper on "A Suggested Sliding Scale of Dividends for Street Railways Determined by Equality of Service."[1]

The President: We now proceed to the most important subject of all; that is, the discussion of the proposed charter for Los Angeles, and Dr. John R. Haynes, the chairman of the charter commission will preside and see to the proper conduct of the discussion.

Dr. Haynes took the chair.

The Chair: On behalf of the people of Los Angeles and of the members of the board of freeholders of Los Angeles and of myself I wish to express our keen appreciation of the privilege that is ours today of being aided by this great national body of experts who for many years have been studying the details of municipal government throughout the United States. All those who have met personally the gentlemen connected with this organization will remember the forceful and genial president whose knowledge and progressive ideas, and whose erudition is such that from his tongue there fall as gently and easily the cadences of ancient Rome as falls dew upon still water upon the shadowy current of the gleaming past. And as far as the secretary of this organization is concerned, he who has devoted so much time and gray matter to the conduct of this organization for so many years, what can I say about him, excepting that his ability is only equaled by his overwhelming humility and his shrinking modesty?

The charter commission of Los Angeles prepared the following twenty-seven questions for submission to the group of experts brought together by the National Municipal League:

Assuming that the city of Los Angeles is to adopt the commission form of government with such modifications as local conditions make necessary—

1. What number of commissioners should the city elect?
2. Should the entire commission be elected for the same period, or should there be a partial renewal at each election, with overlapping terms?
3. Should the commissioners be elected to specific posts, with a mayor elected as such, or should they be elected simply as commissioners and assigned to their places—(a) By the mayor? (b) By the commission?
4. Should bureau heads in the several departments be appointed by the several commissioners absolutely, or subject to confirmation by the commission, or should they be named by the civil service board?
5. Should subordinate city officials having general jurisdiction, such as city treasurer, be chosen by the commission, or appointed by the mayor, subject to confirmation by the commission, or named by the civil service board?
6. Should the auditor or controller be elected by the people, or appointed by the mayor, subject to confirmation by the commission or chosen by the commission or by the civil service board?
7. If there be a separate controller, not a member of the commission, and if there be a commissioner of finance who is a member of the commission, which of those officers should prepare the budget?
8. What permanent provisions should be made respecting the budget?
9. Should the city attorney be elected by the people or appointed by the mayor, subject to confirmation by the commission, or chosen by the commission, or named by the civil service board?
10. Assuming that the departments of (1) public works, (2) public service (water supply), (3) harbor and transportation and (4) public welfare (health, garbage collection and disposal, etc.), each require the services of a high-class engineer

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[1] See National Municipal Review, vol. ii, p. 31.

should these engineers act independently in their respective departments or as a board of engineers?

11. Should garbage collection and disposal be under the commissioner of public works or in the health department?

12. Should the bureau of efficiency be under the controller or under the civil service board?

13. Should the civil service board be subject only to the recall, or should its members be removable by a large majority, say three-fourths, of the commissioners?

14. Should heads of departments have the right of summary removal of subordinates, without recourse, for stated cause?

15. Is it safe, under the protection of direct legislation and the recall, to enact a charter provision for indeterminate franchises?

16. If indeterminate franchises are authorized, what is the minimum time limit on the right to purchase?

17. Is a maximum time limit consistent with the inderterminate franchise?

18. If a minimum limit of five years is fixed, what bonus, if any, should be allowed to the company?

19. What requirements should be made as to amortization, maintenance, betterments and depreciation?

20. Should franchises be sold, or should the city receive a percentage of the net or gross receipts?

21. Should interurban railways, owning their own right of way, be put on the same basis as to franchises as steam railways?

22. Is the borough system indispensable in a city covering a large area?

23. Is the school system properly a function of the modern municipality?

24. Is a system of cumulative or preferential voting or proportional representation practicable in a large city?

25. Is the statement of powers granted in the second draft of the proposed charter of Los Angeles sufficiently inclusive?

26. Is paragraph (43) of Sec. 47 of the second draft of the proposed Los Angeles charter an adequate provision for comprehensive city planning?

27. Should the public library be placed under the jurisdiction of a single commissioner, or governed by an independent board appointed by the mayor and confirmed by the commission, or named by the civil service board?

These questions were taken up one by one and the opinion of each expert given. The result was most interesting and was described at length by John J. Hamilton, the secretary of the board of freeholders in a report to that body. This was published in full in the October issue of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW.[1]

CLINTON ROGERS WOODRUFF,
Secretary.

THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT AS A POTENTIAL CONTRIBUTOR TO MUNICIPAL ADVANCEMENT

The astounding growth of our urban centers is one of the most remarkable developments of our generation and renders it imperative that more serious efforts be made to effect the solution of the many problems which have arisen as a direct consequence. In numerous instances local efforts have yielded splendid results, but the time is now at hand for launching a great coöperative movement for municipal betterment. An unusual opportunity for developing such a movement is offered through the Panama-Pacific International Exposition, one of the principal objects of which will be to present, in exhibit form, a record of achievement in all lines of social endeavor.

Last March I had the honor of submitting to the exposition company a proposal for a comprehensive municipal exhibit which has since been broadened so as to include all the departments of social economy.[2] Briefly stated, the project has for its object the thorough coöperative study of the many pressing community problems now confronting us, and the presentation of the results obtained and the conclusions deduced at the exposition. The exhibits would consist of models, diagrams, apparatus and appliances, photographs, motion films, maps, charts, reports, etc. To indicate more specifically the range of the subjects it is proposed to cover the following topics included in the classification are given: Study and investigation of social and economic conditions; Movement, composition and characteristics of population; Economic resources and organizations; Eugenics; Hygiene, including state and municipal hygiene; Labor; Banking; Insurance, including social insurance; Coöperative institutions, including rural credit systems; Housing; Liquor, drug and tobacco habits; Charities; Criminology and penology; Preparation and enactment of legislation; Nomination and election systems; Municipal statistics; Municipal organization, including the relation between the municipality and the state; City planning and city beautification; Recreation; Public service and its regulation, including the work of the state public service commissions; Municipal laboratories; Public safety.

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[1] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. i, p. 650.

[2] The general plans have recently been adopted by the exposition company which is about to make public its classification.

The principal features of the plan submitted are:

1. The arrangement of the exhibit material, as far as practicable, in accordance with the topics treated, and not as heretofore according to the source, so as to make it possible to present each subject in the most logical and intelligible manner and to facilitate the comparison of different methods of attaining the same result. At the same time, most of the otherwise endless and wearisome duplication would be eliminated.

2. The coöperation of the American and foreign nations, states, and municipalities, in furnishing exhibit material along the many lines in which they are active.

3. The coöperation of the national and local civic and sociological organizations.

4. The coöperation of the federal government in providing the necessary funds for the publication of reports on the principal topics to be illustrated. The benefits of the exhibit would thereby be extended to the whole country and at the same time the results would be made permanently available.

These reports would correspond to the bulletins of the Agricultural Department which make known to the farmer the results of investigations concerning the particular problems in which he is interested. For that admittedly important work, the annual appropriations now exceed $17,000,000. The problems which particularly concern the public as a whole are admittedly equally deserving of federal recognition, and it must be recognized that they are just as technical in character as those confronting the farmer and consequently that they also require for their solution specially trained experts, and men of the broadest experience.

The awakening of public interest in sociological matters is strongly evidenced by the rapid increase, in number and in membership, of the national and local civic sociological organizations, by the numerous articles appearing in the magazines and in the public press, and by the interest in local exhibits dealing with particular phases of social welfare work. It seems, therefore, that the time is particularly auspicious for a broad undertaking of the character proposed.[1]

The general plan has received the endorsement of the National Conference on City Planning, the governing boards of the American Civic Association and the National Municipal League and the approval of many officials of the United States government and of individuals interested in sociological matters. The Panama-Pacific International Exposition Company fully recognizes its opportunities and has agreed to coöperate in every way.

The merits which may be claimed for

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[1] Also by the prominence accorded to some of the problems in the platforms and campaign speeches of all parties during the recent presidential campaign.

the project lie, not only in the exhibit itself and in the topical reports proposed, but more especially in securing fuller federal and state recognition of the many problems with which organized society is confronted. Above all, the exhibit can, as stated above, be made the basis for the development of a nation-wide movement for a better city, a better state, and a better country.

An unusual opportunity is obviously afforded the federal government in lending its all-powerful aid to the project, not only to assist in bringing about a clearer understanding, and an ultimate solution of the many present day problems, and thus making a preëminent contribution to general welfare, but also at the same time to promote a coöperative movement of unusual promise, binding together nations, states, municipalities, organizations, institutions and individuals, all working for civic and social betterment.

The national government is besides directly interested in the municipal problem, as it administers the affairs of our national capital through committees of the house and senate, and a board of commissioners appointed by the president, the right of suffrage being denied the citizens of the District of Columbia.

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(Signed) GROVER G. EISENMANN, *Chairman*,
J. GOLDEN ZABEL, *Secretary*,
A. B. BRAGDON, JR.

September 13, 1912.

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William H. Baldwin Prize

HERETOFORE the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL LEAGUE has established an annual prize of One Hundred Dollars called the *William H. Baldwin Prize*, to be given to the author of the best essay on a subject connected with municipal government. For the year 1912-1913, two parallel prizes of $50 each will be offered as follows:

(a) Undergraduate students registered in a regular course in any college or university in the United States offering direct instruction in municipal government.

(b) Undergraduate students as above registered in a college or university to whose students no Baldwin prize has been assigned the previous year. The object of this arrangement is to extend competition and to equalize conditions.

The prizes will be awarded by judges selected by the Executive Committee of the League, and the names of the winners will be announced at the next following annual meeting.

The Council of the League has selected as the topic for next year's competition the subject of

"*The Best Sources of City Revenue*"

The essays must not exceed 10,000 words, and must be *typewritten in duplicate*, and both copies mailed or delivered to an express company, not later than March 15th, 1913, addressed to CLINTON ROGERS WOODRUFF, Secretary of the National Municipal League, North American Building, Philadelphia, Pa., and marked "*For the William H. Baldwin Prize.*" Competitors will mark each paper with a "nom-de-plume," and enclose in a sealed envelope the full name, address, class and college corresponding to such "nom-de-plume."

For any additional details concerning the scope and conditions of the competition, inquiries may be addressed to the Secretary.

Fifteen essays were submitted in 1912 for the essay on "The Appointment of Higher Municipal Officers by the Merit System." The prize was awarded to Arthur Dexter Brigham, of the Senior Class, Harvard University. Richard H. Dana, Esq., of Cambridge, Mass., and John H. Thacher, formerly Civil Service Commissioner, Kansas City, Mo., acted as judges.

On behalf of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL LEAGUE,

CLINTON ROGERS WOODRUFF, *Secretary*

Secretary's Office
North American Building
Philadelphia, Pa.
December 2, 1912

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THE NINETEENTH ANNUAL MEETING

OF THE

NATIONAL MUNICIPAL LEAGUE

AND

TWENTY-FIRST NATIONAL CONFERENCE

FOR GOOD CITY GOVERNMENT

WILL BE HELD AT

TORONTO, CANADA

NOVEMBER 12, 13, 14, 15, 1913

TO DISCUSS THE MUNICIPAL PROBLEM

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F. S. Spence, Confederation Life Building, Toronto, is the chairman of the committee.

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Copies of the program and other information will be sent on application to the Secretary, Clinton Rogers Woodruff, 703 North American Building, Philadelphia.

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Author, *Die Arbeiterbewegung in Australien und Neu-Seeland.* Professor of Economics and Sociology, Tulane University since 1901. Harvard University, A.B. 1895; University of Halle, Ph.D. 1897.

M. N. BAKER, Montclair, N. J.
Author, *Sewage Purification in America, Sewage Disposal in United States,* (joint author), *Sewerage and Sewage Purification, Potable Water, Municipal Monopolies, Municipal Engineering and Sanitation, Municipal Engineering Topics in International Year Book, and International Encyclopaedia.* Editor, *Manual of American Water Works,* 1888, 1889-90, 1897; *Municipal Year Book,* 1902. Associate Editor, *Engineering News,* beginning 1887 and Editor since 1908; member of the Montclair board of health since 1894 and president since 1904. University of Vermont, Ph.B., 1886; C.E., 1889.

ROGER N. BALDWIN, St. Louis, Mo.
Secretary, Civic League of St. Louis since 1910. Harvard University, A.B. and A.M. 1905.

RICHARD S. CHILDS, New York City
Author, *The Short Ballot and Short Ballot Principles.* Secretary, The Short Ballot Organization. Yale University, A.B. 1904.

FREDERICK A. CLEVELAND, Washington, D. C.
Author, *Growth of Democracy in the United States, Funds and Their Uses, Railroad Promotion and Capitalization, Chapters in Municipal Administration and Accounting.* Director, Bureau Municipal Research, New York since 1907. Chairman, The President's Commission on Economy and Efficiency. Depauw University, Ph.B. 1890, University of Pennsylvania, Ph.D. 1900.

HORACE E. DEMING, New York City
Author, *Government of American Cities.* Chairman, Executive Committee 1903-1910. Member New York Bar. Harvard University A.B. 1871, post graduate work 1873-4. Law School 1874-6

MAYO FESLER, Cleveland, Ohio.
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WILLIAM H. GLASSON, Durham, North Carolina.
Managing Editor of the *South Atlantic Quarterly.* Professor, Political Economy and Social Science, Trinity College, N. C. since 1902. Cornell University Ph.B. 1896, Columbia University, Ph.D. 1900

MURRAY GROSS, Philadelphia
Professor, Political Science and Economics, Drexel Institute Philadelphia 1910-1912. University of Pennsylvania B.S. 1907, post graduate work 1907-8.

GEORGE ELLSWORTH HOOKER, Chicago
Civic Secretary, City Club, Chicago since 1903. Secretary and editor, report of Harlan Commission of Chicago City Council on Street Railways. Admitted to the Bar 1885. Amherst College, A.B. 1883. Columbia Law School, LL.B. 1885. Student Union Theological Seminary 1887-8; Yale Divinity School 1888-90, B.D. 1890.

REGINALD MOTT HULL, Cambridge, Mass.
Formerly secretary of the Cambridge Taxpayers' Association, and assistant secretary of the Boston Finance Commission, Assistant in Government at Harvard University.

JOHN IHLDER, New York City
Field Secretary National Housing Association since 1910. Editorial writer Grand Rapids Evening Press, 1902-8. Secretary Municipal Affairs Committee, Grand Rapids, 1908-10. Secretary Civic Secretaries Committee of the National Municipal League. Cornell University, B.S. 1900.

HERMAN G. JAMES, University of Texas
Adjunct Professor in the School of Government. Director, Bureau of Municipal Research and Reference, University of Texas. Author of [illegible] Articles of the Illinois Constitution, Principles of Prussian Administration. University of Illinois, A.B. 1906, A.M. 1907, University of Chicago Law School, J.D. 1909. Columbia University, Ph.D. 1911.

STILES P. JONES, Minneapolis
Executive Secretary, Minneapolis Voters' League. Member, Minneapolis Vice Commission 1910-11 and assisted in writing report. Graduated, Riverview Military Academy, Poughkeepsie, N. Y. 1884. Student, Harvard University 1884-6.

CLYDE LYNDON KING, University of Pennsylvania
Author, *History of the Government of Denver with Special Reference to its Relations with Public Service Corporations.* Editor, *Regulation of Municipal Utilities.* Assistant Editor, *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science.* Acting Professor of Economics and Sociology, University of Colorado, 1908-10. Instructor in Political Science, University of Pennsylvania. A.B. Michigan, 1907; A.M. Michigan, 1909; Ph.D. University of Pennsylvania, 1911.

J. HORACE McFARLAND, Harrisburg, Pa.
Master Printer. Author, *Photographing Flowers and Trees, Beginning to Know the Trees.* Member, Harrisburg Park Commission since [illegible]. Secretary, Municipal League of Harrisburg. President, American Civic Association since 1904.

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In charge Municipal Reference Bureau, University Extension Division, University of Wisconsin. Instructor, Political Science, University of Wisconsin. Author, *Tenement House Legislation, State and Local, City Government by Commission.* Secretary and Treasurer, League of Wisconsin Municipalities; Editor, *The Municipality.* Graduate of University of Michigan

RICHARD W. MONTAGUE, Portland, Ore.
Author, *Digest Oregon Supreme Court Reports,* Vols. 1–43. Assisted in compilation of Lord's Oregon Codes and Statutes [illegible]-1910. Member of Charter Committee [illegible]. Lecturer on Equity, University of Oregon Law School. State University of Iowa, Ph.B. 1883; also LL.B.

JOHN NOLEN, Cambridge, Mass.
Author, *Remodeling Roanoke,* and sundry reports on remodeling cities. *Repton's Art of Landscape Gardening, Replanning Small Cities.* Landscape architect. Member, Board of (Boston) Metropolitan Planning Commission. University of Pennsylvania, Ph.B. 1893; post graduate work University of Munich [illegible]; Harvard University, A.M. 1905.

C. S. POTTS, University of Texas
Author, *Railroad Transportation in Texas, Crime and Treatment of the Criminal.* Associate Professor of Government, University of Texas. Chairman of the School of Government. University of Texas, B.A., M.A., [illegible]; LL.B., [illegible].

L. G. POWERS, Washington, D.C.
Chief Statistician of the Bureau of the Census since [illegible]. Author, *Special Report on Wealth, Debt and Taxation, Statistics of Cities Containing from 8,000 to 25,000 inhabitants 1903, Statistics of Cities Containing over 25,000 inhabitants [illegible], Annual Statistics of Cities containing over 30,000 inhabitants for 1904, 1905, [illegible], 1907 and 1908; Standard Forms for School Reports, Scheme for Uniform Accounting for Systems of Water Supply;* Iowa State University, A.B. 1872; Tufts College, Litt D. 1901.

S. H. RANCK, Grand Rapids, Mich.
Librarian, Public Library, Grand Rapids, Mich. since 1904. Member, Municipal Affairs Committee, Board of Trade, Grand Rapids. Franklin and Marshall College, A.B. 1892, A.M. 1895.

JESSE S. REEVES, Ann Arbor, Michigan
Professor of Political Science, University of Michigan. Author of *American Diplomacy under Tyler and Polk.* Associate Editor, *American Political Science Review.* B.S., Amherst, 1891; Ph.D., Johns Hopkins, 18[illegible].

EDWARD M. SAIT, Columbia University
Author, *Clerical Control in Quebec.* Secretary, Inter-collegiate Civic League since 1909. Assistant Professor of Political Science, Columbia University. Trinity College, Toronto, B.A. 1902; M.A. 1903; Columbia University, Ph.D. [illegible].

J. ALLEN SMITH, University of Washington
Author, *The Multiple Money Standard, The Spirit of American Government.* Head of the Department of Political and Social Science, University of Washington since [illegible]; Dean of the Graduate School since it was established. University of Missouri, A.B. 1886; LL.B. 1887; University of Michigan, Ph.D. [illegible].

E. A. WALCOTT, San Francisco, California
Author, *History of the War between the United States and Spain.* Executive Secretary Commonwealth Club, San Francisco since 1909. Prepared and educated Santa Barbara College. University of California, B.Litt. 1883.

DELOS F. WILCOX, New York City
Author, *The Study of City Government, The American City, The Government of Great American Cities, Municipal Franchises.* Chief of Bureau of Franchises, Public Service Commission, 1st District of New York since [illegible]. University of Michigan, A.B. 1894; A.M. 1895; Columbia University, Ph.D. [illegible].

CHARLES D. WILLARD, Los Angeles, California
Editor, the California *Outlook*; former Secretary of the Los Angeles Municipal League.